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1958

NEA JOURNAL

Volume 47, No. 1, January 1958

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AMONG OUR AUTHORS

SPECIALIST in the study of astronomy and space travel, JOHN STERNIG has appeared in several TV series on that subject. His theme is that the Columbus of 1992 is already born and that schools and homes have a responsibility to prepare him for an age of discovery in the vast spaces of the universe.

BACK to full-time university teaching after a seven-year stint in university administration, PHILIP E. JACOB reports that teaching is the most exciting—and frustrating—experience he has yet encountered.

J. LLOYD TRUMP says that he and his wife have restless feet and curious minds. Widely traveled, they find great satisfaction in knowing people in many lands. He has taught a graduate course on U.S. educational philosophy and practice open only to foreign students.

JOHN H. FISCHER writes that "an incurable attachment to the Boy Scouts, acquired at age 12," will shortly bring him "to the venerable status of a 35-year veteran."

EXCITING MOMENTS

SO FAR, not all states have been represented in our exciting-moments contest. Does nothing exciting ever happen to teachers in Illinois, Maine, Minnesota, Washington State, Virginia, and Nevada?

Send entries of 150 words or less to Section B, NEA JOURNAL, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. To the writer of the statement JOURNAL editors consider most exciting will go an autographed copy of Edgar B. Wesley's *NEA: The First Hundred Years.*

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JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
1201 16TH STREET, N.W., WASHINGTON 6, D. C.

The articles herein printed are the expressions of the writers and not a statement of policy of the Association unless set by resolution.

OUR READERS WRITE

♦ *This feature of the* JOURNAL *is an open forum for its readers. Ideas and opinions expressed here are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA.*

Homework for the Superior Child

OUR whole family is furious, frustrated, and fatigued by the amount of homework our high-school daughter has to do. She has a 60-hour week—30 in school and 30 doing homework. For her, the results are loss of sleep, frequent colds, and little love for learning. The price seems rather high to us.

We agree that homework is necessary, but, because of two conditions, it seems to get beyond control. First, teachers do not follow their own rule stating that assignments are to have time limits. A further complication is the off-schedule quiz, which also violates faculty rules.

The key difficulty, however, seems to lie in the inability of the school to develop new ways to deal with superior pupils. Our child (my wife's family is very smart) happens to be in a so-called "honors" course. The prevailing teaching theory seems to be: If a typical child can cover five pages of homework, a bright one can do 15 pages. As the IQ level rises, the pile of homework doubles or triples.

Why is nothing done to increase the amount of supervised study in school? What effort is being made to teach above-average children how to think more efficiently?

Many teachers might welcome special clinics to help them in training superior children. Smaller classes would make teachers less dependent upon mass teaching methods and massive assignments. Teachers should have a variety of instructional materials geared to the bright. And they need some relief from interruptions and duties in order to have more time to plan instruction. How can we offer superior youth more *quality* and less *quantity* learning?

—*Name withheld on request.*

♦ *A spring issue of the* JOURNAL *will carry an article on education of gifted children.*

Two Million View Films

THE NEA-state association films—*Freedom To Learn, Mike Makes His Mark, Skippy and the 3 R's,* and *A Desk for Billie*—were placed by the California Teachers Association in 11 television stations during a three-month period beginning July 15. The films were telecast 39 times between that date and November 15 to a total audience of nearly two million persons.

—MABEL N. PERRYMAN, *news representative, California Teachers Association.*

Opinions Differ

ONE of the points mentioned in "Payment by Degrees" [Oct. JOURNAL] was that too many education teachers in our colleges have had little recent experience teaching children. At our institution such teachers have periodic opportunities to teach in the campus school while campus-school teachers take over college classes.

—ALAN RIEDESEL, *assistant professor of education, State Teachers College, Plattsburgh, N.Y.*

CHASING college credits has become an economic necessity for all career teachers. Altho college training is helpful to anyone, I agree with Dr. Watters that there is a healthy limit. Many teachers are reaching the saturation point.

The educator needs experiences unrelated to those in the classroom. Travel, sports, reading, and the like are all crowded out of a teacher's life when he must spend time taking college credits in order to receive higher pay.

—GWEN S. MCKINNON, *Modesto, Calif.*

Teacher-Politician

AT 28, Frank Brouillet, social-studies teacher at Puyallup (Wash.) High School, is the second youngest member of the Washington House of Representatives. In his first political venture, he registered the highest number of votes ever polled by a freshman in the 25th district of that state. He serves on the education, agriculture, taxation and revenue, institutions, and veterans and military-affairs committees of the state legislature.

In addition to his other activities, Mr. Brouillet is assistant football and basketball coach at Puyallup High School. He is an active member of the Washington Education Association and NEA.

♦ *Write to the NEA Citizenship Committee about active teacher-politicians in your community.*

FOR YOUR INFORMATION

President, LYMAN V. GINGER
Executive Secretary, WILLIAM G. CARR
Assistant Executive Secretary for Information Services, FRANK W. HUBBARD

NEA headquarters: 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

1958 NEA convention: June 29-July 4, Cleveland.

American Education Week—Nov. 9-15.

NEA membership, May 31, 1957: 703,829.

NEA officers and headquarters staff: See *NEA Handbook,* pages 71-72, 328.

NEA platform and resolutions: *Handbook,* pages 52-67.

NEA departments: *Handbook,* pages 122-165.

NEA committees, commissions, council: *Handbook,* pages 95-121.

World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession: Information free from NEA; also see *Handbook,* pages 298-303.

NEA JOURNAL

Published monthly except June, July, and August by the National Education Association of the United States, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

NEA JOURNAL goes to all members of the Association. Single copies of JOURNAL, 80¢. Entered as second-class matter October 23, 1920, at the post office at Washington, D.C., under the act of August 24, 1912. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in section 1103, act of October 3, 1917, authorized January 26, 1921.

NEA DUES

By action of the Representative Assembly the following dues are effective beginning in 1957-58.

Active or Associate Membership ..... $10 a year
Life or Associate Life Membership .. $225 cash or $25 a year for 10 years
Retired Membership ..... $2 a year
Student Membership ..... $1 a year

JOURNAL REPRINTS

Black and white reprints [1] of most articles appearing in the JOURNAL can be ordered directly from Colortone Press, 2412 17th Street, N.W., Washington 9, D.C., at the prices [2] listed below. No order for less than 100 copies. Allow two weeks for delivery. (A note concerning special reprint provisions is carried with some articles, including JOURNAL centerspreads.)

Quantity	1 page (1 side of single sheet)	2 pages backed-up [3] (both sides of single sheet)	2-page spread [3] (1 side of double sheet)	3 or 4 pages (both sides of double sheet)
100	$6.85	$10.45	$23.75	$23.75
200	7.35	11.10	25.65	25.65
300	7.85	11.55	27.30	27.30
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500	8.45	12.50	30.75	30.75
1000	9.90	14.40	34.45	34.45
Add'l 100s	.50	.70	1.98	1.98

[1] Whenever material printed in color in the JOURNAL must be reproduced in the reprint, that material is reprinted in gray. Cost of reprinting is then increased by $4 for each page on which the material appears. Reprints with color are not regularly available.

[2] Plus parcel-post charges for delivery.

[3] Some 2-page JOURNAL articles must be reprinted as spreads since heading type or other material runs across the margins from the first page to the second. Whenever possible, the pages of an article that appears as a spread in the JOURNAL will be backed-up.

NEA Television Documentary

► ***Produced by NEA*** as a public service, *Satellites, Schools, and Survival*, a special, filmed half-hour TV documentary on the past, present, and future of American public education, will be released to television stations across the country for use around January 25. Check with your local station on exact date and time.

Several well known Americans have been asked to appear on this program to state their views on different facets of American education. An outstanding personality will serve as narrator for the entire program.

Featured prominently in the program will be NEA Executive Secretary William G. Carr, replying to criticism of our educational system voiced in many quarters in the wake of the Russian sputniks.

Legislation

► ***Rising to the great challenge*** to American education inherent in present world conditions, the NEA, thru its Legislative Commission, announced at a press conference on December 20 its dynamic five-point legislative program for the second session of the 85th Congress.

Bold answers are required, says the Legislative Commission, and foremost among these answers is federal sharing in the support of American education. This already has been advocated by such high-level official bodies as the 1955 White House Conference on Education and the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School.

Based soundly upon principles of freedom of choice for beneficiaries of the program and control of education at the state, local, and institutional levels, the NEA program embraces the following proposals:

1. At least 20,000 scholarships per year for undergraduate study, or a total of 80,000 per year after a four-year period; 5,000 fellowships per year for graduate study, rising to 15,000 at the end of a three-year period. Assuming that scholarship awards average $1,200 a year and fellowship stipends average $3,000 a year, cost of the program would begin at about $40 million and rise to about $160 million annually in four years.

2. Initial appropriation of at least $25 million annually for stimulation and expansion of state-education agency services to include not only science and mathematics education but *all* of their educational services.

3. Adoption of HR 4662, the King-Jenkins Bill, to provide tax equity for teachers who presently are denied professional-expense allowances for advanced study and travel to increase their teaching qualifications. Similar items are already legitimately deductible in other professions and businesses.

4. Continued federal assistance for such well established and useful programs as vocational education, library services, school lunches, and aid to federally affected areas.

5. Federal funds for basic support of elementary and secondary education, to be appropriated to the states for distribution to local school districts for use either for building construction (and basic equipment) or for supplementing salaries of teachers in public elementary and secondary schools, without regard for subject matter taught; this contribution of the federal government to amount to not less than $25 per school-age child and to rise within five years to at least $100 per child. This would mean beginning at $1.05 billion—or less than 10% of the present educational expenditures for elementary and secondary education.

► ***Executive Secretary William G. Carr,*** commenting on the 1958 legislative program of NEA, warned that additional funds are not the only needs of the nation's educational system. He said that the Educational Policies Commission, a joint project of the NEA and the American Association of School Administrators, will issue in January a comprehensive statement on educational policy under the changed conditions of the modern world.

"In announcing at this time its legislative program," said Dr. Carr, "the National Education Association is saying this to the American people:

"If you want our country to have a strong educational system, you must secure and retain the services of highly competent people. If you want education to serve the nation fully in the current struggle that divides the world, this legislative program is the minimum safe level of federal action, provided that it is accompanied by steady and normal growth in state and local school revenues.

"The total program is well within our collective means. As the professional body for education in the United States, it is our duty in this critical period candidly to put before you our best judgment as to the educational response required. You and your representatives in Congress must decide whether to act on these recommendations."

Teacher Welfare

► ***Implications*** of profound importance to teacher organizations are discernible in the signing on December 4 of a judgment favoring eight school-teacher plaintiffs in the precedent-making case of *Benson et al. v. School District No. 1 of Silver Bow County et al.* in the District Court of the Second Judicial District at Butte, Montana. (See May 1957 and October 1957 "News and Trends.") The NEA thru its Defense Commission has been cooperating with the Montana Education Association in behalf of the plaintiffs.

Judge William F. Shallenberger ruled in effect that the Butte board of school trustees could not discriminate against tenure teachers on matters of salary because of their refusal

to join Local 332 of the American Federation of Teachers. As a result of such refusal, the teachers had been denied salary increases granted union members. A basic issue has been whether the board might legally require tenure teachers to join the union under the "union shop" agreement between the board and Local 332, AFT.

Judge Shallenberger ordered that the defendant school district and school trustees enter into contracts in writing with each of the eight teachers for the school year 1956-57. Under these contracts the teachers will be paid the difference between what they actually received for the 1956-57 school year and what the union members received. He ruled that the contracts should not require membership in the Butte Teachers Union or in any other organization. The judgment stipulates that the plaintiffs be compensated in accordance with contracts and with the salary schedule adopted April 2, 1956, for the school year 1956-57.

The court's judgment specifies that (1) the plaintiffs have tenure under the laws of the State of Montana and that (2) the defendant school district and trustees do not have authority to discriminate against the plaintiffs in the matter of salaries or other allowances or rights based on years of training and experience and particularly in the matter of the salary schedule which was adopted April 2, 1956.

Provisions of the "Union Security" portion of the "Master Agreement between the Board of School Trustees and Butte Teachers Union" are declared null and void and of no effect whatsoever insofar as they relate to and discriminate against teachers who have tenure under the laws of the State of Montana.

The judgment signed by Judge Shallenberger is necessarily restricted to the effect of the union security clause on tenure teachers. It allows $2,000 attorneys' fees and costs to the plaintiffs, but the judgment provides that no damages or costs shall be recovered against any of the defendants personally.

At a special meeting held on December 11, the board of school trustees voted unanimously to authorize the county attorney to appeal to the Montana Supreme Court from the District Court judgment. The Butte Teachers Union is expected also to file an appeal.

School Statistics for 1957-58

► ***Public-school enrolments,*** salaries, and expenditures have reached an all-time high this year, according to estimates reported in the NEA Research Division's annual issue of *Advance Estimates*.

Enrolment is up another 1¼ million. Elementary-school enrolment is now 23,814,621, up 3.6% over last year; secondary-school enrolment is 9,694,193, up 4.4%. The total, 33,508,814, is almost 40% larger than 10 years ago. Over the past decade, enrolment has been going up an average of 1,000,000 per year.

States enrolling the largest totals this year are California, 2,815,000; New York, 2,680,000; Texas, 1,884,000; Pennsylvania, 1,871,000; and Ohio, 1,700,000.

Average salary has increased $300. This year's average salary of instructional-staff members (classroom teachers, principals, librarians, supervisors, and guidance personnel) is estimated at $4,650, up 6.9% over last year's $4,350. Salaries of instructional staff have gained steadily over the past decade at an average annual rate of about 6%. Such gains, however, have been offset by increases in the cost of living. Today's average is equal to $3,840 in the period 1947-49 and $2,296 in the period 1935-39.

Classroom teachers have gained 7.1%. The 1957-58 average for classroom teachers is $4,520, up 7.1% over last year's $4,220. Leaders among the states: California, $5,750; New York, $5,687; Delaware, $5,450; New Jersey, $5,210; Washington, $5,175; Michigan, $5,100; Arizona, $5,075.

Five years ago 20% of the teachers were paid less than $2,500; today only 3.7%. Five years ago only 13% of the teachers were paid as much as $4,500; today's figure is 41%. In one state, approximately 50% of the classroom teachers are still paid less than $2,500; in two others, 38% and 35%. On the other hand, there are 27 states where no teacher makes less than $2,500.

Total costs have increased $1.2 billion. The total cost of public elementary and secondary schools this year will be approximately $12.9 billion, including capital outlay, interest, and debt retirement. The corresponding figure for last year was $11.7 billion. Current expense, excluding capital outlay and payments on debts, will be $9.5 billion as compared with $8.7 billion last year. Gains in current expense over the past three years have averaged about 10% per year.

Cost per pupil has increased $20. Costs of education are more readily understood when shown in specific amounts per pupil in attendance. To illustrate, the total money going into current expense has increased 125% since the year 1948-49, but the amount per pupil in average daily attendance has increased only 62%.

The variation among the states in per-pupil expenditures is great. The range is from $158 per year in one state to $482 in another. States now supporting education to the extent of $400 or more per pupil are New York, $482; New Jersey, $435; Wyoming, $430; Delaware, $400; and Illinois, $400. The low states are Mississippi, $158; Tennessee, $182; Arkansas, $195; and South Carolina, $199. The nation-wide average is $320.

Instructional staff has been increased by 53,000. The instructional staff of elementary and secondary schools now totals 1,329,551, up 4.2% over last year. Ten years ago the total was less than 900,000. The rate of growth over the past decade has been approximately 45,000 or 4% per year.

The number of school districts in the United States continues to decrease. Twenty-five years ago there were 127,244 districts. Last year the total was 53,197; and this year, 49,477—a reduction of 3,720.

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My Name is_____

Teacher of Grade_____Principal_____Adult Group Leader_____

Name of School or Group_____

Address (for shipment)_____

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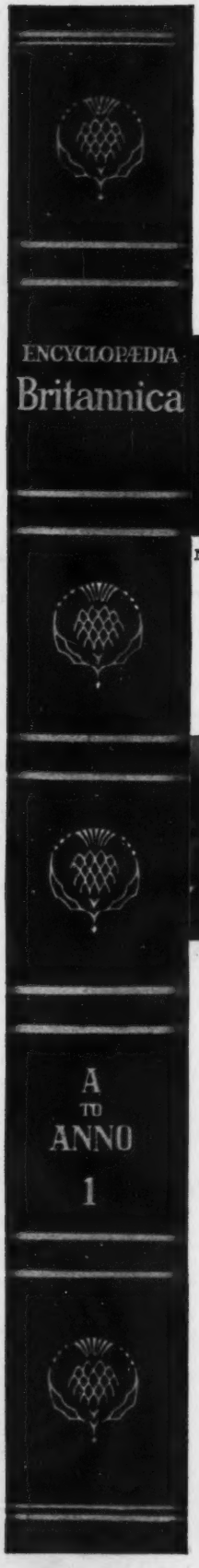
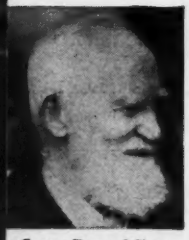


Albert Einstein
Scientist

Nicholas Murray Butler
Educator

Rear Admiral R. E. Byrd
Explorer



George Bernard Shaw
Playwright

Sir Alexander Fleming
Bacteriologist

Arnold Toynbee
Historian

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PANORAMA of CLEVELAND
(terminal tower at night)

96th annual meeting of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Cleveland, Ohio, June 29-July 4, 1958

REGISTRATION and commercial exhibits will open Sunday, June 29, at 10 a.m. in the Cleveland Public Auditorium. Registration for delegates and alternates will continue until 5 p.m. Wednesday, July 2; general registration until noon Friday, July 4.

All major meetings will be held in the Auditorium. Meetings of Departments, state delegations and discussion groups will be held in the Auditorium and nearby hotels.

The first general activity will be the Vesper Service at 4 p.m. Sunday, June 29. Departmental meetings are scheduled for Monday; the first general session, Monday evening, and the first business session, Tuesday morning. State headquarters rooms in the Statler Hotel will be open Sunday evening.

Requests for sleeping accommodations should be filed promptly after February 3 by mailing the form below to the NEA Housing Bureau in Cleveland. Please note map and hotel rates on reverse side.

Because of the limited number of single rooms available, you will stand a much better chance of securing accommodations of your choice if your request calls for rooms to be occupied by two or more persons. All reservations must be cleared thru the Housing Bureau. No block reservations will be sanctioned.

---

application for room reservation

(Confirmation will be received directly from the NEA Housing Bureau)

NEA annual convention
June 29-July 4, 1958

Mail to:
NEA HOUSING BUREAU
Cleveland Convention Bureau
511 Terminal Tower, Cleveland 13, Ohio

Please make hotel or motel reservations as follows:

1st choice ..... 2nd choice .....

3rd choice ..... 4th choice .....

note: If the hotel or motel of your first choice is unable to accept the reservations, the Housing Bureau will endeavor to comply with your choices in the order named. Indicate whether location or price is more important on later choices:
Location ☐ Price ☐

..... Single room (s) with bath for ..... person (s).	Rate $..... to $..... per room.
..... Double-bedroom (s) with bath for ..... persons.	Rate $..... to $..... per room.
..... Twin-bedroom (s) with bath for ..... persons.	Rate $..... to $..... per room.
..... Suite (s) (Parlor, bedroom and bath) for ..... persons.	Rate $..... to $..... per suite.
Other type of room (describe).	Rate $..... to $..... per room.

arriving ..... at ..... a.m. / p.m. **departing** ..... at ..... a.m. / p.m.

Names and addresses of all occupants: (Reservations cannot be made without all names)

Name	Address	City	State

Date ..... Signature .....

1958 NEA ANNUAL MEETING
Cleveland, June 29-July 4

hotel and motel rates

The NEA Housing Bureau will open February 3, 1958. All housing requests will be filed and assignments made in chronological order. Applications for housing in the Statler, the headquarters hotel, will be limited to national and state officers receiving special forms for this purpose. If, after making a reservation, you find it impossible to attend, please cancel your reservations by notifying the Housing Bureau promptly.

HOTEL OR MOTEL	SINGLE	DOUBLE	TWIN	2-(3'-)ROOM SUITE
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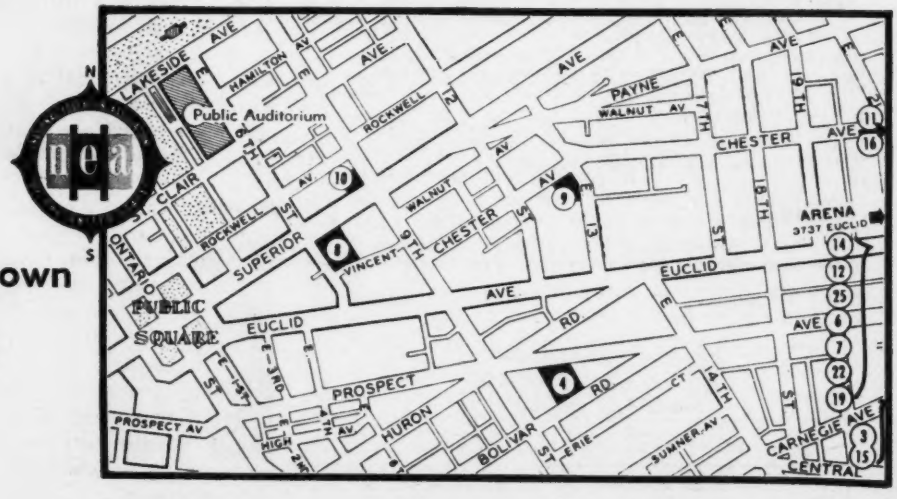
3. BOLTON SQUARE 8907 Carnegie Avenue	5.00- 8.00	8.50-12.00	8.00-15.00	8.00-25.00
4. CARTER Prospect and East 9th Street	6.00-10.00	8.50-14.00	10.00-16.00	26.50-36.50 40.00-48.25*
5. CLEVELAND Public Square	6.50-11.00	9.50-13.50	12.00-19.00	25.00-50.00 42.00-65.00*
6. COMMODORE Euclid and Ford Drive	8.50-10.00	11.00-12.50	12.50-14.00	15.00-30.00
7. FENWAY HALL 1986 East 107th Street	6.50-10.00		9.00-15.00	15.00-25.00
8. HOLLENDEN 610 Superior Avenue	6.00-11.00	9.00-14.00	10.00-19.00	20.00-35.00 30.00-60.00*
9. MANGER 1202 East 13th Street	5.00- 9.00	7.00- 9.00	9.00-13.00 Studios 14.00-30.00	18.00-45.00 36.00-75.00*
10. OLMSTEAD Superior and East 9th Street	5.00- 8.50	9.00-11.00	9.50-15.00	17.00-20.00
11. PARK LANE VILLA 10510 Park Lane	6.00- 7.50	10.00 up	11.00 up	15.00 up
12. ST. REGIS 8205 Euclid Avenue	5.00-10.00	6.00-12.00	7.00-12.00	15.00 up
13. STATLER (Headquarters) Euclid Avenue and East 12th Street	6.50-14.00	12.00-15.00	13.00-22.00	27.00-37.00
	(Rooms reserved for officers)			53.00-57.00*
14. STOCKBRIDGE 3328 Euclid Avenue	4.00 up	6.00 up	8.00 up	
15. TUDOR ARMS 10660 Carnegie Avenue	10.00	14.00-16.00	16.00-18.00	35.00-60.00
16. WADE PARK MANOR East 107th and Park Lane	7.00-12.50	10.50-16.50	10.50-17.00	17.00-33.00 38.00-64.50*
17. WESTLAKE 19030 Westlake Road	7.00-10.00	9.00-12.50	10.00-14.00	15.00-30.00 (Apts.)
18. BUCKEYE MOTOR COURT 22985 Lorain Road	7.50		10.00	
19. EASTOWN HOTEL COMPANY 15103 Euclid Avenue	9.50	12.50		
20. HARBORVIEW MOTEL 22430 Westlake Road	7.00- 8.00		9.00-11.00	
21. LAKEWOOD MANOR 12019 Lake Avenue	9.00		15.00	
22. MOTEL CLEVELAND 17027 Euclid Avenue	6.00- 7.00		8.00-10.00	
23. PARKBROOK, INC. 14011 Brookpark Road	7.50		10.00	
24. REST MOTEL Northfield Road	6.00	8.00	9.00	
25. UNIVERSITY CENTER 9409 Euclid Avenue	7.50		11.50	
26. YORK MOTEL 6287 Pearl Road	7.50	9.50	10.50	27.50

map of downtown CLEVELAND



"I AM ONLY ONE..."

MALVINA LINDSAY

MOST OF US feel an upsurge of hope that the new year will be better than the old one. Then we are confronted by a chilling headline telling of new angry fist-shakings between nations or groups, or of the threat of a new space weapon. Again comes the frustrating question: "What can I do?"

Each of us wants to make some personal contribution to the quest for peace. Yet we wonder how the individual can count in such a big, involved, and seemingly millennial undertaking. However, if we take some close looks at ourselves and our surroundings, we find a surprising number of things that "only one" can do—and do in 1958.

FIRST, we can inform ourselves about candidates for public office (a Congressional election comes up in November) and vote for those we think will do most to promote peaceful relations among nations. The NEA Citizenship Committee, whose goal is to make every teacher a politically literate and full-time voting citizen, can provide suggestions for appropriate political activity for teachers.

But we vote with ballots only occasionally. We vote with our money and our opinions every day thru the periodicals we support, the books we buy, the stands we take in conversation. This calls for rounded, objective information which we may not get if we depend on only one of the mass media. We may need to enlarge and balance our information about foreign affairs.

We can write members of Congress, state legislators, and other public officials—in personal, short letters on our best stationery—supporting them when they take constructive and courageous stands on measures that we think will further peace. Members of Congress say they get mail in volume from angry citizens and from poorly informed ones, but hear little from those who have pats on the back or constructive proposals to offer.

We can also write or telephone to encourage newspapers and radio and television stations in any efforts they make to raise the level of information on public affairs. They, too, hear chiefly from the disgruntled and from those concerned with the trivial.

We can uphold the United Nations by learning more about it ourselves and by passing on information of its agencies, its achievements, and its goals.

If we live in communities in which there is limited access to news of international affairs, we may be able to promote public forums for broader discussion of such matters.

We can encourage the study of foreign languages, among both children and adults, as a means of giving Americans the first qualification for leadership in world affairs—the ability to communicate.

Most of us have opportunity to practice international good will thru contacts in school and community with foreign students, teachers, leaders, technicians, and other visitors from foreign lands. If we can proffer personal hospitality, so much the better, but at least we can extend warmth by our greetings, our conversation, or even by our pleasant expression when passing on the street. These visitors generally have antennae sensitive to our attitudes, and a friendly look from an American may be long remembered.

PERHAPS the most basic—and difficult—thing we can do is to develop our own auras of peace. Tensions in this country over integration and other social change and fears over foreign threats create quicksands of hostility on all sides. These threaten to draw us in and impair our usefulness in promoting peace either at home or abroad. If we stand fast against these, we can each contribute something toward an atmosphere of harmony in which peaceful solutions to problems can be sought. # #

Miss Lindsay is an editorial writer and columnist for the **Washington Post and Times Herald,** *Washington, D. C.*

Upon education rests

The Fate of the Nation

says **JOHN F. KENNEDY**

CRUCIAL questions confront America today: Will we provide world leadership or display fatal weakness? Will we succeed or fail in the struggle for survival during the years to come?

The answers, I sincerely believe, depend on whether our educational system is capable of meeting the challenge of today or whether a shortage of teachers, classrooms, and money—with a consequent lack of high-quality education—will prove in the long run to be the undoing of our nation.

That public education is in a state of crisis today is well known. There is less agreement on the cause and the cure. I only hope that those who recognize the urgent need of improving public education in this country will not exhaust their efforts in looking for a scapegoat but will join in attacking the problem at its very roots.

The responsibility for ending this crisis, in my opinion, must be shared at three levels—federal, state, and local.

First, the federal government, which has far greater, as well as more effective, means for raising public revenues, has an unavoidable responsibility to enact promptly a bold and imaginative program of federal assistance to the states and to local school districts for the construction of public schools, leaving all direction of academic content and standards, of course, in local hands.

Our teachers cannot be expected to fulfil their critical responsibilities when nearly a million boys and girls are deprived by the classroom shortage of full-time schooling, and when hundreds of thousands more are held back in unwieldy classes of 40 or more. We need this year additional classrooms to meet the requirements of several million more pupils than we presently have adequate room for in our elementary and secondary schools.

The valiant efforts of state and local authorities, which spent over $2.5 billion in school construction during the last school year, must be supplemented by federal action to meet this nation-wide crisis.

BUT more and better classrooms are not enough. More and better teachers are also needed—better trained, better paid, better utilized. Here the state and local authorities share responsibility.

Our state governments must provide teachers colleges that attract the best students and provide the best education. Some states still have too many teachers colleges, which are, as a result, too small, too poorly financed and staffed, and too ill equipped in terms of physical plant, libraries, laboratories, and other facilities.

Authorities on the state level could also take steps to improve teacher certification, re-examining outmoded statutory requirements, maintaining and gradually elevating minimum standards, and providing for those who become certificated a sense of accomplishment and prestige comparable to that felt by candidates admitted to the legal and medical professions.

FINALLY, a large measure of responsibility for improving the quality of teaching in our schools rests with local school boards and school administrators.

Not as a United States Senator, but as an interested citizen, I would respectfully suggest that present methods for recruiting teachers be improved in order to attract the best students, to select the best graduates, and to compete in the labor market with the expertly developed recruitment methods of American business.

Altho the figure is too staggering to comprehend fully, the fact is that our schools must recruit in the next three years alone almost three-quarters of a million new teachers—more than our entire school system contained not too long ago.

Once teachers are recruited and hired, more can be done to improve the methods of teacher promotion. We must find better means for providing better rewards for our better teachers, we must make actual use of probationary periods to retain only those with satisfactory performance records, and we must demonstrate concretely to young beginners in the field that real opportunities for advancement await those whose contribution is of the highest caliber.

More can be done, also, in terms of better teacher utilization—by removing burdensome administrative details and paper work that might better be done by electronic computers or by parent volunteers.

And perhaps most important, school boards, school patrons, and all of our citizens must cooperate in the effort to achieve better teachers' salaries. No profession of such importance in the United States today is so poorly paid. No other occupational group in the country

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Mr. Kennedy has been United States Senator from Massachusetts since 1953. He previously served three terms in the House of Representatives and is the author of* Profiles in Courage, *winner of the Pulitzer Prize for biography in 1957.

is asked to do so much for so little.

No amount of new classrooms, television, training, and recruitment techniques can attract and retain good teachers as long as their salaries are beneath the responsibility and dignity of their position. We pay the average railway conductor nearly twice as much as we pay the teacher who conducts our elementary classes. Plumbers, plasterers, and steamfitters are paid more for improving our homes than we pay teachers for improving our children.

HELP from the federal level for more and better classrooms; help from the state level for better teachers colleges and better teacher certification; help from the local level for better salaries and for better recruitment, promotion, and utilization of teachers—those are the goals toward which must move all who recognize that upon education rests the fate of the nation.

"Knowledge is power," said Francis Bacon. It is also light. In the dark and despairing days ahead, our youth shall need all the light the teaching profession can bring to bear upon the future.

In his book, *One Man's America*, Alistair Cooke tells a story which illustrates my point. On May 19, 1780, as he describes it, in Hartford, Connecticut, the skies at noon turned from blue to gray "and by midafternoon had blackened over so densely that, in that religious age, men fell on their knees and begged a final blessing before the end came.

"The Connecticut House of Representatives was in session. And as some men fell down [in the darkened chamber] and others clamored for an immediate adjournment, the Speaker of the House, one Colonel Davenport, came to his feet. And he silenced the din with these words: 'The Day of Judgment is either approaching or it is not. If it is not, there is no cause for adjournment. If it is, I choose to be found doing my duty. I wish, therefore, that candles may be brought.'"

Today, all of us who hope for future peace and security must look to the teachers of America as we ask that "candles may be brought" to light the way ahead. # #

As the NEA enters its second century

The Challenge Is Ours

LYMAN V. GINGER

AS THE NEA enters the second century of its existence and we begin to consider our future tasks and opportunities, we find our attention arrested by the achievements of Russia in the scientific field. It is our responsibility as educators to appraise the significance of these developments.

I wish I had the wisdom, the vision, and the understanding to predict precisely what these things mean, but I lack that wisdom. I do understand, however, that what Russia has done represents the result of a national concentration upon a certain type of education.

Four parts of Russia's educational value system have implications for us. Russia has felt that it is important to train its best minds in mathematics and science, to make teaching a profession of great prestige, to assure adequate compensation for its teachers, and to limit average class size to less than 20 pupils (while we are still trying to get below 30).

This value system has produced definite results, but let us remember that we cannot accept some of the philosophy and policies which prevail in Russia. For example, we have never believed in a system of education nationally dominated or controlled.

Further, let us not allow our vision to be so distorted by scientific spectacles that we lose perspective. In the future, as in the past, let us dedicate our schools to the promotion of the democratic objectives of a free society.

How can education best contribute to our national welfare? I contend that we need to evaluate carefully the kind of education we want in the generation to come and then move forward as quickly as possible to attain it. In this respect, I see at least six specific things which the NEA must do:

1. We must interpret to the public what we mean by an adequate education, using all the media at our command. And in turn, we must encourage the public to participate with us in determining what constitutes a desirable education.

2. We must produce the kind of teacher welfare and the kind of status for teachers that will draw into the teaching profession the best minds in the country.

3. We must provide better services to every teacher at every level.

4. We must conduct research in every field to make sure that our education is on sound footing.

5. We must improve the quality of instruction.

6. We must work harder than ever to improve our international relations by promoting deeper understanding of all peoples and all cultures.

As I travel about the country, talking with people interested in education, I am of the opinion that this next century will require not only what I have outlined here, but a great deal more. I also believe that our progress in the past hundred years will be a mere beginning in comparison with the opportunities for achievement that lie in the next.

The challenge is ours, and the limits to which we can go are, paradoxically, unlimited. What should be done, can be done. # #

Dr. Ginger, NEA president, is dean, College of Education, University of Kentucky, Lexington.

This article is based on the speech given on November 17 by Dr. Ginger at the laying of the cornerstone in the third unit of the new NEA Center.

This Building Is a Workshop

said* WILLIAM G. CARR *at the NEA cornerstone ceremonies on November 17.

As THESE simple ceremonies end, I welcome the opportunity to say a few words on behalf of the staff of the Association.

This building is a workshop. Its products are educational services and educational leadership. We who work here rejoice in the opportunities such employment affords. We intend that this new building shall enable us to expand and improve those services to the teaching profession, to the young people in our schools and colleges, to our country, and to the world.

Forty years ago this autumn, the first NEA offices in Washington were opened—three rooms in a building just two blocks from here. The total membership was 8,466, and the total staff was three persons. James W. Crabtree, who was at that time executive secretary, wrote in his autobiography that then he could not foresee a membership of more than about 40,000.

In the summer of 1920, the offices were moved to a small dwelling which stood where this open framework is now rising. At that time, the entire office property of the Association—books, records, files, and publications—was moved to this corner in a hand cart.

As WE reflect on the profoundly changed circumstances of the Association during the memory of all but the youngest among us, we become aware of two sentiments.

The first is one of gratitude to the men and women who have made the Association what it is today—not merely to those whose names are written large in educational history, but also to the Unknown Teacher who has given time, strength, resources, and thought that the National Education Association might be an honorable and useful institution.

The second feeling that must surely arise as we contemplate the past is confidence. If the buoyant spirits which founded the Association 100 years ago could not imagine the status it would occupy today, if the first daring attempts to establish a Washington office were based on assumptions long since shown to be inadequate, how can we dare to set limits upon our hopes for the future?

When, as may happen to any of us, there arise doubts or anxieties about the future, I hope we may be able to hear, even above the roar of today's heavy traffic, the small, brave rattle of the wheels of a hand cart and the footsteps of a staff of three people advancing firmly down M Street to this corner.

I promise you on behalf of the NEA staff that we shall work in this building with gratitude for the past. I promise you also that we shall work here with a resolute confidence in the future of the National Education Association and of the ideals for which it strives.

GRATEFUL APPRECIATION

MORE than placing a block of beautiful marble in its permanent position, this symbolic laying of the cornerstone for the new NEA Center is an acknowledgment of the contributions from more than 100,000 American teachers. Their generosity in sending to the National Education Association more than $9,260,000 in life membership, cash, and pledges is an indication of great loyalty to a profession. We of the official NEA family acknowledge these gifts with grateful appreciation and a humbleness of spirit.

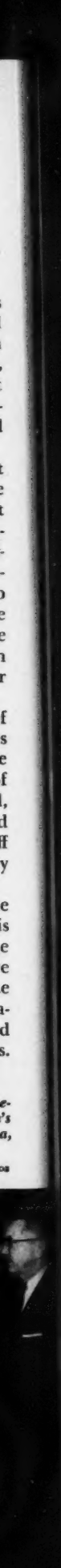
When the NEA Center is completed, it will be a symbol of the aspirations and hopes of the greatest profession on earth. You who teach and have contributed to the NEA Building Fund can feel deep pride in having had a part in making this dream come true.

May the year 1958 mark the completion of the NEA Center and the rededication of our free and voluntary profession to the ever-enlarging responsibilities of educating children in a rapidly changing world.

—KARL H. BERNS, *assistant executive secretary for field operations.*

A. C. Flora, chairman of the NEA Board of Trustees, presided. In addition to Dr. Carr, speakers included U. S. Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare Marion B. Folsom, NEA President Lyman V. Ginger (see page 11), and Deputy Commissioner Wayne Reed of the U. S. Office of Education. In the photo below, the Board of Trustees, which manages the Association's property, inspects the cornerstone: Corma Mowrey, Dr. Flora, F. L. Schlagle, J. Cloyd Miller, and Dr. Ginger.

Vince Finnigan Photos



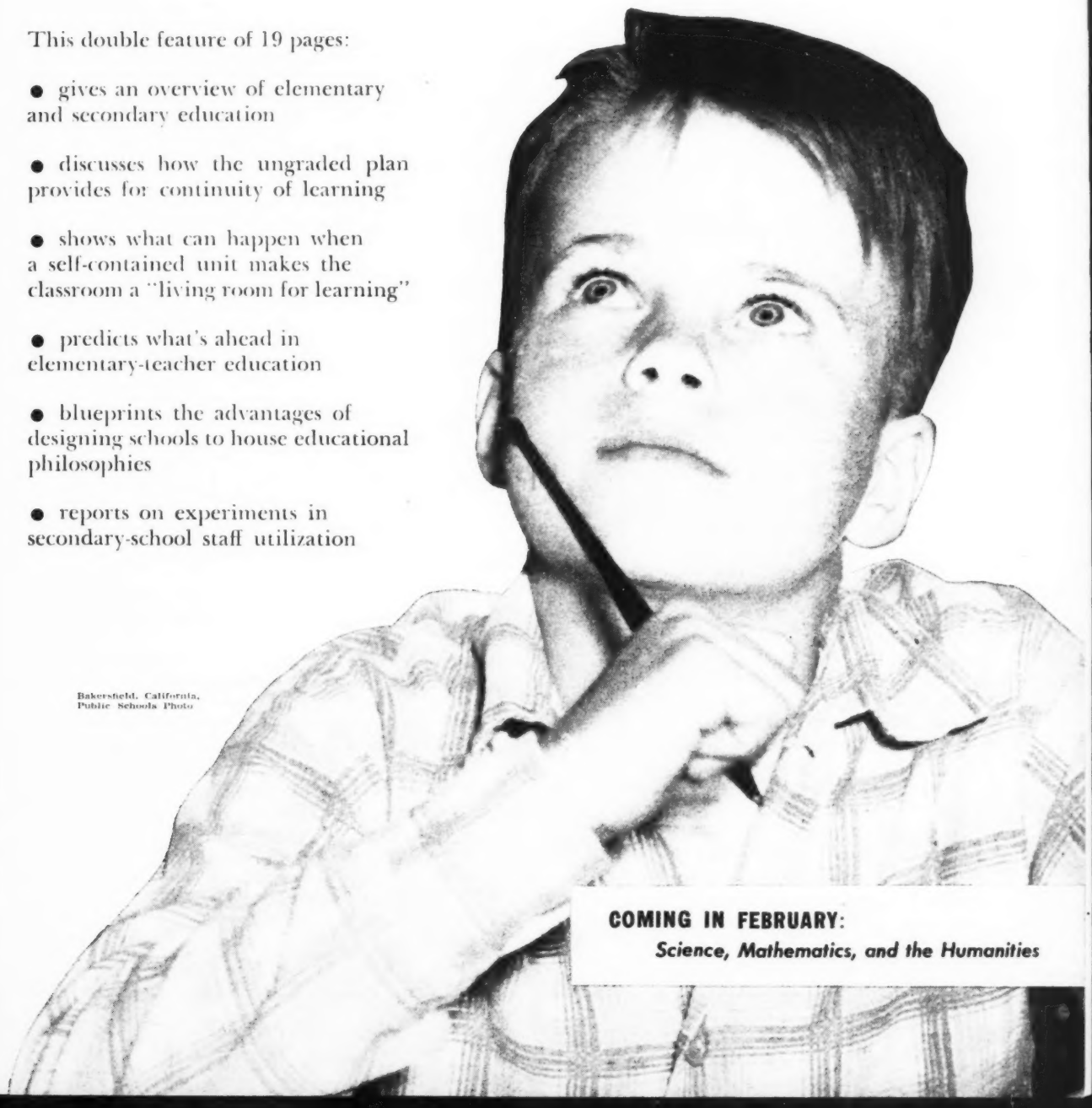
Special Journal Feature

Today and Tomorrow

in elementary and secondary education

This double feature of 19 pages:

- gives an overview of elementary and secondary education
- discusses how the ungraded plan provides for continuity of learning
- shows what can happen when a self-contained unit makes the classroom a "living room for learning"
- predicts what's ahead in elementary-teacher education
- blueprints the advantages of designing schools to house educational philosophies
- reports on experiments in secondary-school staff utilization



Bakersfield, California, Public Schools Photo

COMING IN FEBRUARY:
Science, Mathematics, and the Humanities

A CREATIVE APPROACH TO

THE American public school, that institution so dearly loved, so treasured, so often maligned, so often the center of attacks, may sometimes sway, bend, and creak a little, but still it stands, rooted deep, symbolic of the most cherished dreams of its people.

The school stands month after month and year after year, because millions of American citizens, not always able to articulate what they think and feel, give it their full support and confidence.

It also stands because thousands of dedicated educators, with no expectation of fame or riches, somehow have been able to perpetuate the American Dream.

In the midst of the pointed barbs of criticism, so often selfish and unjust, the teacher has stood, a custodian of the culture, a perpetuator of our ideals. Thru lean years, public attacks, and stormy debates over the content of the curriculum, these teachers have continued to place their greatest emphasis on human values, and so have done their part to keep the dream alive.

Is it because of the prevalence of unthinking criticism that much of the educational practice in the United States has succumbed to lethargy? Have we fallen back on that which we feel to be expedient rather than that which we know to be good? Shall we succumb to a dull conformity?

Educational research and study have long shown that learning of the highest quality comes from insight and understanding, and that skills are best learned and organized for use in a creative approach to learning. We educators know that we must live and work creatively with children if we are to help them build the values by which they will steer their course.

In our fast-moving world, we are limited in giving our children the factual answers to many problems. What may be true today may not be true tomorrow. Gadgets change, travel and communication change, scientific concepts change, some values change; but people in their joys and sorrows, their hopes and fears, change little.

Regardless of the almost devastating speed at which we live, the natural growth processes of children must run their course. The deep longing within the human being to grow outward and upward always struggling for a better self remains unchanged. We as teachers can retard this growth, we can blight it, we can almost destroy it. We can encourage it and nourish it, we can release it, and we can help it to find its fullest flowering.

Let us then, in the years to come, cast away the outmoded drab practices that follow the lines of least resistance and that inadequately prepare our children for living in the world of today and tomorrow.

LET us look at the teaching of reading, an area which comprises or touches all phases of the elementary-school curriculum.

Shall we be bound by a static vocabulary as our children begin to read? In reliance on this process, they are often exposed to such reading material as:

We went to the farm.
We saw the cows.
We saw the horses.
We saw the farmer.
What fun!

Look at Muff.
Look at Ruff.
Oh! Oh!

In an atmosphere more conducive to the release of the spirit, a child painted a picture of a rising sun, wind-tossed trees, and flying birds. Underneath it she wrote:

The day will bring
Some lovely thing.
Look! Look! Look!

The vocabulary and the subject-matter background of today's children are a continuing wonder to adults. Can we not provide them with reading material that challenges thought and stimulates imagery?

In the school of tomorrow, shall we continue to divide children into three or more reading groups with each child reading on the same line while the teacher asks such questions as:

What did the old man do then?
What did the old woman do?
What kind of house was it?

As children respond to this bit-by-bit prodding, there is squirming and wiggling. There are lost places, dull eyes, passive faces, or a too quiet stillness that bespeaks lost imaginings. No textbook, however good, can withstand this kind of treatment and remain a book to which a child is endeared.

IN ORDER to meet the individual needs of children as they read, there must be books and more books—good textbooks and good trade books. In today's world there is a richness of children's literature never known before.

At present, it is possible for children to pass thru the elementary school and encounter but little of the good and the great in children's literature. This may be caused by a lack of books, a lack of time, or a lack of teachers who have close acquaintance with children's literature and thus know the riches with which it is endowed.

Thousands of children enter school today who have never been introduced to Mother Goose. They have somehow missed the gay, amusing, nonsensical characters who caper about in lively abandon. They have no acquaintance with the mouse who ran up the clock, the pussy cat who went to see the queen, or the sheep in the meadow or the cows in the

Dr. Nesbitt is consultant teacher with the Richmond, Virginia, public schools and is a member of the National Commission on Safety Education, NEA.

corn. They have often missed the witchery and enchantment of fairy tales as they were originally recorded for their delight. Many boys and girls have missed books of honesty, integrity, and vision that would furnish them with truths to rely upon. They have missed books of valor and strength where cowards make a poor showing, liars are punished, false pride has its fall, and where truth and justice always triumph in the end.

IN THE school of tomorrow, will we recognize and provide, better than we have heretofore, for the wide differences in children's reading interests and abilities? Are our sights so fixed on devising schemes for drill on separate parts of the reading process that we forget the whole? Will we instead be willing to place the greater emphasis on engendering and promoting a love of reading which enhances the child both as an individual and as a group member?

Will teachers have help in working thru the difficulties and developing the techniques necessary for such a program? Will there be fewer sets of books and more libraries and librarians in the elementary schools? Will teachers frequently have time and opportunity to read aloud to their children?

In this day of compact housing, not many children can curl up on a deep windowseat with a favorite book. Not many can retreat to the attic or the porch swing, or read before an open fire or in an inglenook. But at school all can enjoy a book together as the teacher reads. When the snow flies or the rain beats on the pane, and the children can't go out to play, there may be added time for reading. All can enjoy together the joys, the hardships, the pathos, the whimsy, and the nonsense of a favorite book.

In such shared pleasure, group standards and ideals are built, and children feel a oneness with the age-old problems of the world. Those who make books their friends create for themselves inner resources from which they cannot be separated. In such companionship one finds the richness of the hopes and aspirations of mankind and the delight of the potential wonders of the universe.

WHAT about the social studies? In future years in this field, will we rely primarily upon a textbook and a stereotyped unit of work? Will our children be restricted to studying the home, school, neighborhood, state, nation, and world in rigid sequence? In the years to come, will the study of other cultures be less sentimental and more realistic?

At the beginning of this school year, a first grade found that, during the summer, members of their group had visited the farm, the seashore, the mountains, New England, Florida, Texas, Hawaii, and Mexico. The pupils' conversation was stimulating; their interests, national and international.

In the foreseeable future, will we be willing to give more time and emphasis to the current events of life as they are brought into the classroom by children and by teachers who are sensitive to the problems around them?

Will we give less time in the school of tomorrow to testing the facts and more time to building the broad concepts of history and geography? Will we give less time to question and answer and more time to thoughtful discussion?

Will we more fully accept responsibility for helping children build geographic concepts of space and location? Will we help them understand how these concepts affect human behavior? Will we, by our teaching of history, give them a better understanding of the dynamic forces, sterling principles, sturdy day-by-day living, and stirring drama that go into the building of a great nation?

In the future years, can we not make of the school a laboratory for developing the social characteristics we wish our children to live by? Will we not attempt to deal better with thoughtless acts, unkind words, and the like, that all may come to a clear understanding and in so doing become kinder, friendlier people?

As we deal with these problems, will we think of them as taking time away from the subjects to be taught? Or will we accept and act on the principle that those who have experienced a healthy group life of good will toward their fellow men and have been made conscious of this process as they live it have an invaluable asset with which to approach national and international understandings?

IN THE world of tomorrow, will there be more emphasis on the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary school? If so, what languages will be taught? Will another *subject* be added? Will the courses be designed for the gifted few or for all children? Will mastery of the language be the goal or will the emphasis be on helping children develop greater sensitivity to cultures other than their own? What about the cost of such a program in relation to the other needs of children?

IN OUR anxiety and fear, and the attendant preoccupation with deadly mechanical devices, will we overemphasize and isolate the teaching of science? Or will we see science as an integral part of the curriculum, remembering that it is harder to manage political and social relationships than it is to teach mechanics?

Will we remember that new meanings come out of enriched experiences and that our greatest need is for creative scientists who are able to go far beyond that which is now known? Will we believe that scientists, as all others, must learn

T LEARNING

MARION NESBITT

the undeniable truth that no man or group of men lives or works alone on this earth? Will we act on the belief that thru an appreciation of the art, the music, and the literature of a people, we grow more sensitive to their meanings and ideas?

Will we help children to realize better that all people everywhere are dependent upon the sun as the source of all energy? As we help them to learn and appreciate the great truths of science, will we also help them to develop a continuing awareness of the great creative force in the universe that is mightier than man?

LET us now look at the school day. What shall we add? What omit?

Can we not omit the hurry, the push, the fragments of learning? Let us instead substitute longer blocks of time—time for finishing things that need to be finished, time for listening to children, time for long deep thoughts.

Let us make use of the abundance and richness of experience which our age provides, but rid ourselves of schemes and devices that would reduce learning to the mechanical acquisition of certain skills.

Can we not in the richest country in the world provide our teachers with the kind and amount of teaching materials that contribute to the best growth of children? Can we not reduce class size so that teachers feel success and satisfaction in helping children grow to their highest stature?

Let us look carefully at teaching by television, teachers' aides, and the overuse of textbooks and workbooks. Anything which separates teachers from the children they teach in a way that lessens the quality in human relations is false economy indeed.

In a creative approach to teaching, the uniqueness of the human spirit and personality is revealed. It is in this revelation that teachers are privileged to share the endearing characteristics of children who are seeking to grow and who are making the discovery of the thrill that comes with learning. These are the greatest rewards of teaching. # #

The Ungraded P

ETHEL THOMPSON

IN MOST of the schools thruout our country, children are assigned to a grade at the close of the school year in May or June. The vast majority of these children remain in the grade for one year, and are assigned for another year to the next higher grade the following May or June.

In some schools there is greater flexibility, and reassignments during the school year are possible. These schools recognize that circumstances during a 12-month period may alter the situation. Errors in judgment may have been made in the assignment at the close of a school year; an individual child's pattern of growth may have altered to such an extent that the assignment no longer represents the best learning environment for him.

There is also an increasing number of schools that are eliminating annual assignments—sometimes referred to as promotions or retentions. Children approximately six years old are admitted in these school systems to a primary unit. Reassignment to a different classroom group comes when the child has completed that part of the curriculum assigned to this stage of learning and is always made after careful consideration of providing the best learning environment available for the individual child. Three years is generally required by most children, but some may take only two, while others will need four years.

In a few schools, learning experiences in the primary unit are followed by a second block requiring two to four years for completion, with the majority of children spending three years. This is commonly called the intermediate unit, and, with the primary unit, it presents the curriculum of the elementary school familiarly known as grades 1 to 6.

The ungraded intermediate unit is not as widely accepted as the ungraded primary, nor is it being used as extensively. In those schools where the ungraded unit organization is confined to the primary years, a child will move from the primary unit to grade 4.

THE ungraded unit seems to be a stage in the development of procedures for providing continuous learning.

At one time in the development of our school system, the curriculum was composed of neat bundles of subject matter carefully measured off into small equal segments, each to be mastered in a particular period of time.

Individual differences in the amount of time required for mastery were accepted. A rapid learner received more of the same thing to fill up the time not required for mastery. This additional practice obviously was not needed, since all expectations and requirements had already been met.

The slow learner was given a second period of time, equal to the first, and the subject matter was again presented. Educators erroneously anticipated that this second exposure would result in more rapid learning and the mastery of the entire segment of learning assigned to this period.

Today, our curriculum has expanded far beyond a limited body of subject-matter content. It includes an ever-broadening expanse of knowledge, an ever-lengthening list of facts, plus a concern for applying facts and using our knowledge to solve problems.

Schools are interested in a child's total development. Research has shown that among children of the same chronological age there are wide variations in the stages of mental, physical, and emotional-social development, and wide in-

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dPlan *helps provide for continuity of learning.*

dividual differences in the rate of growth in various areas. This means that we are limited in predicting for any one child what can be accomplished in any given short period.

This expansion of the school curriculum, combined with studies in learning and child growth and development, has brought about new objectives, methods, techniques, and administrative procedures. Mere repetition does not produce mastery. But a careful step-by-step sequential building of skill on skill, with the learner feeling success along the way, results in growth and laying of foundations on which more complex learning can be built. What practices meet this criterion?

WHEN children are organized for learning into grade-level groups, the curriculum for a particular group is determined by the grade level. It is probably true that in most graded classrooms a careful presentation of sequential learnings is provided for those students who are at the grade level. But deviation from the grade level brings problems of instruction, including the use of grade-level material and units of learning.

As for success, it is difficult to associate retardation or working below grade level with that concept. This mythical term "grade level" has dominated school practice without taking into consideration variations in ability to learn, skill in teaching, amount of time spent on specific areas, pupil-teacher ratio, and many other factors that determine progress in the acquisition of learning.

This is not to say that continuity is impossible in the graded classroom because sequence and success cannot be established. Many skilled, creative teachers and principals have overcome obstacles presented by the organizational practice. Flexibility in assignments, in the use of materials, and in evaluating and reporting progress of students has provided for the sequential presentation of learning and a feeling of success.

THE ungraded unit is an organizational pattern adopted primarily to provide continuity in learning. It recognizes the sequential development of skills and the importance of success or mastery at each stage. Individual standards are related to the potential of each pupil. The content of the curriculum for the primary grades has been divided into a number of sequential levels, with the children progressing from one level to the next in each subject area during the two to four years spent in the primary unit.

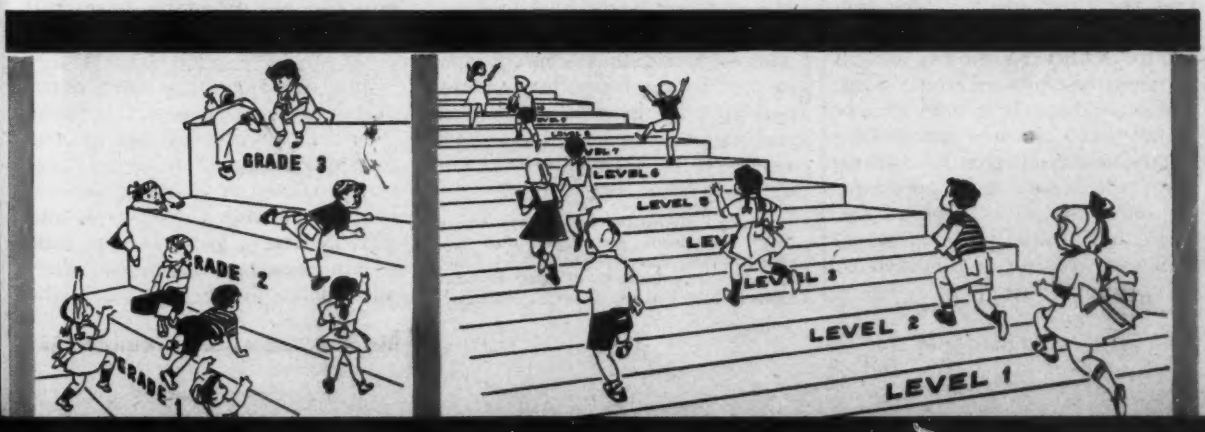
A child may not have completed all levels at the end of the four-year period, or he may have required less than the minimum two-year period. However, such cases would be few in number and would be handled on an individual basis. During this block of time, there is never a particular day of decision when children are either assigned to the next grade or kept back to repeat a grade. Evaluation has been a continuous process.

The membership of the learning group changes only slightly from year to year. As individual children master all levels assigned to the primary unit, they are shifted to another classroom group. Pupils can be assigned to another classroom group whenever the needs of individuals present problems of grouping for instruction within the classroom, or when the group no longer provides the best possible learning environment for a pupil. Since groups are ungraded, no status is gained or lost by such a shift.

Whether the teacher stays with one group of children thruout the primary unit is dependent on the many factors unique to each situation. Continuity is provided by the orderly progression thru various sequential levels of learning.

THE majority of schools using the ungraded primary unit have confined their study and analysis of sequential learning to reading. A significant contribution could be made by these educators if they would extend their study to all areas of academic learning.

Arithmetic, spelling, language, social studies, science, physical education, and the fine arts are also part of the school curriculum, and continuity in learning in these areas should be provided for. The level of learning in one subject does



not indicate progress in another.

If the goal of education is the well rounded development of a child to the limit of his potential, then the school should accept the responsibility of helping every child acquire facility in all the academic fields. And teachers would be better able to guide individual pupils toward a well rounded education if sequential learnings in each subject were determined with a flexible marking-off of periods of time to insure complete coverage in the elementary-school years.

It would seem also that if emphasis in the elementary school were placed on a broad, thoro grounding in all skills of general education, it would then follow that the learning-teaching process should be so guided that no one area would be extended to the neglect of another.

It might mean that at a specific time more emphasis should be placed on one subject area than on others and that the emphasis should be continued until the pupil has "caught up."

This does not mean that in an area of particular ability a child should not be encouraged to go far beyond the level of achievement usually expected at a particular grade level. It does mean, however, that attempts would be made to have the pupil attain at least a minimum of proficiency in all areas.

PROBABLY the next stage in the development of procedures for providing for continuous learning will be interage or intergrade grouping. This idea can be traced thru recent educational literature. It has been tried out in several school systems as an action-research project and adopted by a few staffs.

The viewpoints of many educators are well expressed by Arthur Jersild in his *Child Development and the Curriculum:* "Some purposes require a very heterogeneous group. Other purposes can be achieved best by a relatively homogeneous group. It is only by associating with children quite different from himself that a child can learn the lesson, so important in life, that one must be able to get along in a world peopled by persons who are dull or bright, fat or thin, stupid or wise . . ." # #

LIVING ROOM FOR

G. ROBERT KOOPMAN
and EDITH ROACH SNYDER

THE self-contained unit in our modern elementary schools is a workshop in which the principles of child development come into play. It is a home away from home —a living room for learning. It is a base of operations out of which a group of children (ideally no more than 20) work all day, every day, for a year or more with one teacher.

The teacher in a self-contained unit may use the help of many people, such as professional specialists, parents, and friends, but the *responsibility* for organizing and coordinating the educational experiences of a group of children is his alone.

The self-contained unit is practical, easy to administer, easy to house. It accommodates the broadened objectives of education. Children can learn the three Rs in this new living room, and they can also grow up to be physically and emotionally healthy.

There seems little doubt that elementary education must provide simultaneously both for a safe emotional haven for the child and for his rather adventuresome excursions—intellectual, emotional, and physical—into the outside world.

LET us look at a specific self-contained unit in action—this one in an ungraded elementary school. It is not in a new school building, but in one that is 35 years old. The room itself has been equipped in part by the board of education and in part by parents, teacher, and children.

Visitors who pass by the door of this classroom usually respond to the urge to walk into the room. "It is warm, colorful, and different looking," they say. Children like it too. There are red and green plastic chairs and davenports complemented with end tables and colorful table lamps. There are movable tables and chairs so each child may have his own. Each corner is a special interest area with an abundance of resources.

Books to enjoy, things to make, materials to use, records to play, films to see, games to play—all this and much more is available to boys and girls to help them find answers to their questions, to explore, to create, and to probe more deeply into their interests. There are a piano, a phonograph, a tape recorder, a filmstrip machine, and a radio in the room available for use at any time.

Environment provided by material things is important in the self-contained classroom. More important are attitudes, feelings, and relationships of people who dwell in the classroom.

These boys and girls have spent their school hours with their teacher for three years in this same room. Parents have become close allies. Children, parents, and teachers, in planning and executing educational experiences, have built a oneness into the room climate.

THE needs of the learners determine the curriculum in this room. The children are not third-graders or any other graders. They were not promoted or failed at the end of last semester. These boys and girls became a group at the time of kindergarten registration. They entered the primary grades in the

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LEARNING—a Self-Contained Unit

same group, which, after three years, is still nearly intact.

We will attempt to share with you a panorama of our observations in the living room for learning.

There are only 25 children in the room, but they seem to be everywhere. Four boys are in the far corner, where science materials are clustered behind a screen. They are involved with Tim, a turtle that Jimmy found on his way to school.

Since no one, including the teacher, knows how to care for him or what to expect of him, two of the boys are reading up on turtles in the encyclopedia. One of the boys is writing down important things to remember about turtles. Jimmy is on his hands and knees watching with wonder and adoration as Tim explores his new surroundings—a large bowl that has been provided as his temporary residence.

Close by, seated on davenports, are several children who are reading with every evidence of intense interest and real enjoyment. Each child has a different book. It would be difficult to determine the grade level.

Seated around a center table with their teacher are another group of readers and a mother. Using books that are alike, they are working out some reading problems.

The mother was invited by her child to visit this reading class so that she could understand and help him with his reading problems. The boy's attitude is one of happiness and pride at having his mother there.

At another table, one child is counting dimes, another is recording them, and a third is making the audit for the day.

These transactions are in connection with a Korean child that the group has adopted for a year or more. The group wrote letters for information on the plan, organized ways and means of procedure, set up a meeting with their parents in which they explained the project and made recommendations, asked parents for approval and support, and then unanimously accepted the program.

Each child contributes 10¢ a week, which he has earned helping at home, for the support of little Kim. The children have exchanged letters, pictures, and toys. They have learned many things about Korean life and people. Thru their relations with Kim, their attitudes have been given breadth and depth in understanding for all people.

EVIDENCES of parent and citizen relationships are everywhere in this room. When asked whether or not there is any pattern to these relationships, the teacher points to the many evidences of lay participation in planning. She says:

"We consider the parent-teacher-

The teacher in a self-contained unit may use the help of many people.

Michigan Education Journal Photo

child conferences as the most productive means of communication. Yesterday I had a conference with Jimmy and his mother and father, to plan an action program for Jimmy.

"About a month ago Jimmy and I had evaluated his growth in reading and numbers. Together we found his difficulties in spelling and multiplication. He told me that he was also having difficulties on the playground with Tom, who is in the classroom next door.

"Jimmy invited his parents to come to school the following week. When they came, he met with them in a far corner of the school library. He showed them his social-studies notebook and explained the group project. With pride he read a new story and showed them how he had improved in writing during the last month. He also told them about his problem with Tom."

This account is typical of the activities taking place in other living rooms for learning.

WHAT effect does the self-contained classroom have on the mental health of pupils and on school-community relations? What does it require in the way of plant, equipment, and administration?

Mental Health. Mary at nine in the third grade is in one sense what she will be at 49. In the self-contained unit, the teacher, who has known Mary and her family for three years, has a real chance to understand the child and to help her if there is a void or a development in Mary that needs attention. But in the departmentalized or centralized elementary school, the teacher has far less chance to know his pupils well enough to be of much help with their many personal problems.

Little is known about the causes of mental illness in our culture, but what is known suggests the value of the self-contained principle.

Community and Parent Relations. In the self-contained operation, there is inherent an effective basis for communication and cooperative educational planning based primarily on the individual approach.

The parent-teacher interview and the homeroom family unit of children, parents, relatives, and friends represent two basic and effective sets of human relationships. When these relations are good, communication is good. The self-contained unit is the nucleus of the entire community school operation. Homeroom groups flow naturally into neighborhood councils and city-wide efforts to provide good fiscal support and good school administration.

Plant, Equipment, and Administration. The requirements of the self-contained operation with regard to plant and equipment have been well explored in the last 10 years. That the room will be large (1,200-plus square feet), squarish, open, and furnished with sink and toilets is obvious. Flexibility thru size and form is supplemented by movable furniture of the kind found in living rooms. Stationary desks are unsuitable.

Equipment that is frequently used must belong to the family group, since a self-contained unit lives by its own schedules. Equipment and supplies include everything belonging to the group plus many things borrowed from families, friends, and community agencies or requisitioned from central supply depots in the school system.

Teachers who really try to meet the needs and adjust to the readinesses of their individual pupils constantly point out the importance of having a great flow of materials of various kinds.

MOST of the objections to the self-contained principle come from people who have never been in such a group or visited one. Nevertheless, there are some objections which deserve mention.

The objection that not all teachers are broadly educated is real, but it has not proved to be a very serious problem at the elementary-school level. With good administrative services, a good inservice education program, wise use of resources, and reasonable willingness to learn, this problem can be handled by any principal and group of teachers.

Parents often show anxiety over the possibility that their child might draw "out of the hat" a poor teacher. This objection is real and important, but it has not proved insurmountable. A few teachers do not stand the test of survival under any system. Transfer to a more appropriate teaching assignment can be used in severe cases of maladjustment, but, in the main, on-the-job education will take care of the problem.

The objection that children will not get instruction in special fields is again a real one. The remedies, however, are well known. A principal in a system that has specialized consultants can bring them to the classroom in such a way as to bring about teacher growth rather than just special teaching. Cooperative teaching, in which two teachers in self-contained units help each other to teach and grow in terms of the strengths and weaknesses of each other, is one obvious answer to the problem.

That children don't learn fundamentals is an objection but not a problem. It has been demonstrated that the learning of fundamentals takes place in any room where there is good teaching.

The objection must be recognized that under the self-contained setup children will not meet enough adults and children. The principle of emotional security implies that learners don't grow well in a swirling crowd of people. They need the homeroom base. Also, practice indicates that the wise teacher cares for a variety of contacts. A minimal program of utilizing resource people, student teachers, school assemblies, and excursions brings about a reasonable number of outside contacts to enrich in-group living. The teacher's leadership is the key in this case.

IN CONCLUSION, we would like to point out to all elementary teachers the importance of standing up for some concept of teaching. Professional unity is a great asset. Many forces are at work that might threaten the wonderful opportunities of the elementary teacher.

Only a general consensus within the profession—an adoption of the self-contained principle or some more advanced principle—will protect children and teachers from some of the mechanical and damaging approaches to teaching. #

Tomorrow's Elementary Teacher

What kind of preservice preparation will he need?

MAURICE R. AHRENS

Reproduction of SNEA 4-color 17"x22" recruitment poster. Copies of poster free from NEA while supply lasts.

THE three preceding articles have described the authors' ideas of a possible elementary-school curriculum of the future. In each article, teacher competencies necessary to make the program possible are indicated or implied. The purpose of this article is to spell out my impressions of the kind of teacher-education program which will develop teachers who have these competencies so that the elementary program of the future visualized by these writers may become a reality.

THE future preparation of elementary teachers will be, at a minimum, a five-year program, culminating in a master's degree. Students will not be permitted to teach until the first four years are completed. The fifth year will begin the summer preceding the first full year of teaching and will be completed not later than the summer immediately following the third year of teaching.

Opportunities to complete the fifth year will be provided thru off-campus and on-campus seminars and summer-school programs.

Altho the major part of the general education for the preparation of elementary teachers of the future will be contained in the first two years, there will be a continuation of appropriate general-education curriculums in the third, fourth, and fifth years.

The concept of general education is intended here to mean that part of the total curriculum which is designed to help students identify and solve common personal, personal-social, social-civic, and economic problems. In this approach to general education, students not only acquire information accumulated in our culture, but also come to recognize the importance and use of facts in solving the problems of living and of society.

The paramount objectives in this kind of general-education program include the development of skills in problem solving thru the use of the scientific method; in locating and evaluating information; and in rational, critical, imaginative, and creative thinking. Furthermore, students will have an opportunity to develop a philosophy of life and acquire a set of values which implement this philosophy.

A general-education program based upon these concepts and objectives will complement and supplement the professional and professionalized subject-matter areas of a teacher-education program.

THE content of courses in the professional sequence for the preparation of elementary teachers in the future will be essentially the same as that provided in the best programs today. The program of the future will emphasize at least three functional concepts:

First, students will relate what they learn to the teaching-learning situation thru applying their learnings in actual experiences with children in classrooms. Second, these experiences will be preplanned and used as an integral part of each professional course. Third, instead of segmenting the professional experiences, many courses will be combined and offered as "block" or core courses.

Most of the core courses in this part of the professional sequence will serve students preparing for teaching in both the elementary and secondary schools. The last block or core just preceding the internship will represent the student's full program.

The real hope of achieving the self-contained classroom and the ungraded elementary school which have been described in the preceding articles is to prepare teachers well in understanding and skills in the many areas of the elementary curriculum. The elementary-teacher education program of the future will include professional-

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ized subject-matter background courses in all subject areas. An understanding of what to teach elementary children and how to teach it will also be developed.

Here, again, courses such as language arts, reading, and arithmetic will be combined and taught in larger blocks of time. This approach will stress the relatedness of subject matter and its applications to the solution of problems of children and society.

DURING their first year in college, all students interested in teaching will take a course designed to help them verify their interest and aptitude in teaching.

During the first and second years, when three-fourths of their program is general education, students will begin studying human growth and development and social foundations of education and also begin courses such as art and music in the professional subject-matter sequence which require considerable background and skill development. During the junior year, students will continue to build and strengthen competencies in the professionalized subject-matter areas and at the same time continue a considerably reduced program in general education.

In the first half of the senior year, students will be divided into groups, not to exceed 30, and work together for the entire semester. Each group will have an elementary-staff coordinator aided by several members of the elementary staff. The curriculum in this block program will be primarily concerned with the total elementary-school program. It will allow for more extensive participation with children in the laboratory school and prepare students to intern.

THE future program for the preparation of elementary teachers will provide many varied opportunities for students to observe and work with children. Contacts with children will begin with observation, case studies of individual children, and studies of small groups of children, all purposefully planned and related to the course work. Most of these contacts will be made in the college laboratory school.

During the sophomore and junior year, students will participate in the classroom for short periods of time with small groups of pupils. Students will also begin working with groups of children in the community, such as Scouts and Sunday-school classes. These experiences will all be related to course work and supervised by the college staff.

During the first semester of the senior year when all students are in a 15-hour block course, a minimum of four weeks' participation in the laboratory school will be provided for all students.

THE internship of the future will be in public schools, preferably in centers where a considerable number of interns can be placed. It will be for a full quarter or semester, and the intern will live in the community where he is interning.

There will be several seminars for interns during the semester. For example, the first one will be held the first week of school on campus, to help students make final preparations for the intern experience. The second one will be held near the middle week of the semester either on or off campus to concentrate on the problems students are experiencing and to provide an opportunity for them to share experiences. The third, held at the end of the semester on campus, will be used for evaluation of the intern experience and planning of the fifth-year program.

The college coordinator or supervisor will work with the principal and faculty in each school in which interns have been placed to familiarize them with the background and experience of each intern, as well as to help them understand the responsibility of the intern and the responsibility of the school. The coordinator will also work closely with each cooperating teacher.

Because college terms usually begin after the opening of public schools, interns do not have an opportunity to participate in presession planning and the first week of school. Therefore, the program of the future will have each student participate in these activities before beginning his internship.

THE fifth-year program will start the summer following the internship. Students who have just completed their internship and teachers who have had one semester's experience will work on the specific problems and needs for improvement discovered while interning or teaching. The laboratory school will be available for observation and participation. This will be the approach for the work of three successive summers.

During the beginning teachers' first school year, the college will provide a staff member to work with the supervisory staff of the school system in providing any kind of help needed by the new teachers.

In addition to this service, all teachers during their first three years of teaching will receive assistance from several well planned seminars of two to four days held each semester either on campus or in an accessible location. The seminars will be staffed cooperatively by the college staff and the public-school supervisory staff.

THE teacher-education program of the future will include a plan for wise selection of prospective teachers involving careful consideration of emotional and social behavior and of physical well-being as well as intellectual progress.

Each student interested in teaching will be assigned a counselor, who will keep a cumulative record for each counselee.

The placement of students will be given greatly increased consideration in the program of the future. There will be an attempt to place a student in the school where there is optimum opportunity for his success.

Ideas and practices described here for preparing elementary teachers in the future have come from a study of the three preceding articles and from promising cooperative programs now going on in selected teacher-education institutions and public schools in this country. The development of better programs for the preparation of teachers will depend largely upon carefully planned experimentation and research in which all concerned will participate. #

HIGH SCHOOLS FOR THE FABULOUS FUTURE

JOHN H. FISCHER

IT HAS become commonplace to speak and write of the next half century in terms of fantastic new technological wonders, rapidly rising standards of living, and increasing leisure for nearly everybody. Many of us blithely assume that the chain reaction having been set off, we have only to sit and wait while the future descends upon us, bringing automation to every business and boundless joy to all on easy terms.

There are others, of course, who know better—and their number has risen since the sputniks have reminded us with their peculiarly persuasive sky writing that gains in technology are closely correlated with progress in education.

It took no glittering satellite, however, to convince the officers of the American Association of School Administrators, NEA, that our high schools will not be good enough for the years ahead unless most of them are promptly and substantially improved. This is why two years ago the decision was made to devote the 1958 yearbook of AASA to the American high school, considering particularly the role of secondary education in our emerging culture and the kind of schools our country will need in the foreseeable future.

Three Lines of Force

Any valid estimate of that future must include the possible effects of three revolutions now under way. One is the demographic revolution, the explosive expansion of population which is producing new pressures and problems almost everywhere on earth. As the consequence of higher birth rates and declining death rates, it has been responsibly predicted that by the year 2000 the population of the world will have doubled.

Simultaneously, a second revolution is in progress—an egalitarian revolution reflecting the widespread desire for freedom and equality among races and peoples who only recently have begun to assert their rights, their aspirations, and their strength.

The third is the most publicized and, in some respects, the most dramatic of the three revolutions—the unprecedented growth of scientific knowledge and technological progress. This is the development toward which most of the current discussion and criticism of education have been oriented, but in the long run the other two courses of change may affect education no less profoundly than the unprecedented progress of science.

The combined effect of these three lines of force as they converge upon American life is to require a better average level of education for a larger and more diversified student body than our schools have ever before sought to serve. Never again will it be possible for the minimum span of universal education to be encompassed within the elementary grades; the essentials of citizenship, vocational preparation, and intellectual development demanded by modern society can no longer be provided in less than 12 years of schooling.

Nation-wide, nearly nine of every 10 young people of high-school age are now in school, but among our school districts the range is wide in the percent of the youth group enrolled and wider still in the degree to which the needs of all are being met. The growing demand for better-educated people means that high-school curriculums must be re-examined and improved, and that for many, common schooling must be extended to include the offerings of the junior or community college, whether in the

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form of general education or specialized technical training.

The Educational Task

In appraising the tasks with which the modern world confronts the high school, it is essential that the details of our educational enterprise be seen in relation to the major goals of our society. Failure to view the problems in this way could lead to programs compartmented in terms of specific functions and lacking the unifying focus which becomes even more important in these complex times than it was in a day of simpler, more manageable problems.

The yearbook commission, aware of this hazard, has restated what it calls "the legitimate and critically important goals of our secondary schools" in these words:

The maximum development of all the mental, moral, emotional, and physical powers of the individual, to the end that he may enjoy a rich life thru the realization of worthy and desirable personal goals, and

The maximum development of the ability and desire in each individual to make the greatest possible contribution to all humanity thru responsible participation in, and benefit from, the great privilege of American citizenship.

It will be immediately evident to anyone familiar with the traditional purposes of American schools that this statement contains nothing new. These are continuing goals.

The shortcomings of our schools are rarely seen in the statement of their objectives. Our unfinished business is most likely to be found in the depth of our commitment to those objectives and in the effectiveness with which they are approached.

The difficult task of the high school is, in the light of the goals, now to extend the opportunity for sound education to more young people, of more diversified backgrounds, with a greater range of occupational objectives, in a world of incredible complexity and amid an unprecedented expansion of knowledge.

And, since we are not training for totalitarianism but educating for freedom, we cannot use the techniques of mass instruction but must devise, instead, procedures to enhance and nurture the individual strength of every student. That we have not fully mastered the means of doing all this is scarcely remarkable, for it has not yet been done anywhere.

We may draw considerable encouragement from our earlier accomplishments, for when we dwell upon our unmet needs we do well to take account also of our known assets. The truth is that our present national strength—physical, intellectual, and spiritual—is due in large measure to the quality and extent of our public high-school programs during past decades.

The current tendency to blame our failures on the schools without giving them due credit for their contributions to our successes is worse than unfair; it is hazardous. Unless we understand how our educational efforts have prepared us to meet earlier challenges, we may not appreciate how heavily we shall have to depend upon our schools to equip us for the challenges of the future.

Programs To Meet a Multiple Need

Many of our present schools are exceedingly good, and almost every one has some characteristic of unusual value. What is needed, fortunately, is not the creation of a new system but the improvement of an establishment which is buttressed by a wealth of solid experience and is moving ahead with the momentum of accomplishment.

There is, for example, general agreement that more should be done to accustom boys and girls to rigorous intellectual activity and thus prepare them to make the most of college opportunities. But already the graduating classes of our public high schools annually overwhelm the admissions officers of even the most exacting universities with more well qualified applicants than they have ever had before.

The ways to set up high schools to produce such classes consistently are no secret, but too few schools are able to offer such high caliber work. Schools whose programs are not as stimulating as they should be, who allow students to work below their own best levels, or whose curriculums are not designed to prepare students for today's world can profit from the experiences of other schools as well as their own as they reorganize their programs to do what must be done.

Better guidance activities are required in many schools, for the essence of an educational plan which aims to develop students as individuals rather than as units in a mass must be an appropriate means for relating the school's full resources to the needs and interests of the student. The best guidance programs are demonstrating what can be done. The judicious selection of currently effective practices and their use by more schools will meet a large part of the existing need.

Better organization of schools and school districts and the provision of adequate professional and auxiliary manpower are additional problems to be solved. In these aspects of the work, there will necessarily be considerable variation from place to place.

While any school can learn much from others, each institution must tailor its organizational and staffing patterns to its own situation and resources. The quality of local administrative leadership and the readiness of the community to respond to it will be of substantial significance in determining these patterns and the speed with which they may be achieved.

Another major contribution to the improvement of high-school education is possible thru the creative design and use of physical facilities. In too many places, the construction of a new building is viewed largely as a response to the need for more space or for replacing out-of-date architecture, while the possibilities of truly facilitating teaching and learning are overlooked. By bringing together the best thinking of teachers and the imaginative approach of architects, many communities are building schools in which individualized instruction and a richer curriculum can become realities.

The enormous problem of school-

plant construction can be turned into a priceless asset if we use the opportunity to design our new schools in line with the best that is already known and with the flexibility to meet changing educational requirements.

Educational Research

The fact that many schools could be substantially improved merely by making use of what is already known should not be allowed to obscure the pressing need for additional research. Alert teachers and administrators are well aware of a long list of questions to which answers are sorely needed. The AASA yearbook identified such queries as these:

- What are the most economical class sizes for given subject fields or teaching purposes?
- Would better educational results follow if schools were organized around teaching teams instead of individual teachers?
- Is there an optimum size for a secondary school?
- What types and amounts of specialized vocational preparation are most conducive to job success for high-school graduates?
- How can culturally impoverished students be motivated toward intellectual development?
- How can able youth be motivated and their learning guided most effectively?
- What are the special merits of television, films, recordings, and similar devices as teaching helps?

Finding the answers to these and other important questions will entail far-reaching, aggressive programs of research in which local school systems, state agencies, colleges and universities, professional organizations, and the U.S. Office of Education will all take part.

Educational research is essential to sound progress in schools at any time, but the current excitement about the alleged shortcomings of American schools places special value upon well substantiated data and theories based upon carefully designed and responsible research.

Resources for Progress

If the better school of tomorrow is to become a reality, it is obvious that resources must be identified to power the process of change. People, ideas, and money will be needed to take us from where we are to the positions we must reach.

Most powerful of all, of course, will be ideas, and these will be generated and applied only as we creatively combine experience, research, imagination, and wisdom. Contributions can be made and should be encouraged, not alone among teachers, but also in citizen groups and from students. Because the universities have a particularly important role to play in this respect, the recent steps toward cooperation between secondary school and college people are especially to be valued and stimulated. In no phase of the common effort are high caliber leadership and responsible participation so urgently needed.

Neither people nor ideas can be fully effective without the necessary material resources. Money is a major factor in the massive effort now demanded of American secondary education. The long-protracted debates on federal aid will have to be terminated and the issue resolved in full awareness of the fact that education in the United States is a national problem, to be dealt with on a nationwide dimension as well as locally and at state level.

To presume that equality of either opportunity or accomplishment in American education is remotely possible thru independent state effort, when average annual income per child in 1955 was $3,364 in Mississippi and $12,256 in Delaware, is to ignore the facts. To suggest that education in one state is not the concern of another, or of the whole nation, is to close one's eyes to the mobility of our population.

Even if we were unconcerned about the principle of equal opportunity for all Americans, the present and impending shortages of competent manpower justify financial aid to schools thru federal means. The evidence is abundantly clear that a vast reservoir of potential skill and power will be wasted until suitable steps are taken to assure the education of children in the economically undeveloped sections of America. Improvements of any significance in the high schools of such areas without providing greatly increased financial support are impossible.

"I want my severance allowance."

Leadership and the Administrator

It will not be easy anywhere to see to it that the purposes of our society and our schools are kept in harmony; that the welfare of the individual pupil and his best development are the focus of all the school does; that the central importance of the teacher is recognized and served; that material means are marshalled and applied but always kept subordinate to moral and spiritual ends.

These tasks are never easy, and the only prospect for the future is that they will grow constantly more difficult. But these are the tasks of administration and leadership which constitute the assigned mission of the principal and the superintendent.

In a good high school, as in any other democratic institution, leadership is in no sense a monopoly of the principal or superintendent, but a function in which many persons participate. Teachers, pupils, parents, and other citizens all share in the process of identifying and choosing goals and in planning ways to approach them. But the fact remains inescapable that the person who serves as the designated center of authority and responsibility is the key figure in the progress of the school.

Of all the burdens carried by those called to leadership in American education today, none is more pressing than the need to maintain balance and perspective. # #

The North Hagerstown High School, to be ready for use this fall, will include four little schools.

Little Schools of 800

EVA A. CROSS and RUTH S. FORD

SCHOOL administrators are faced with the problem of expanding their school facilities and keeping such facilities flexible enough to adapt to further changes tomorrow. They realize that a good school reflects an effective preplanning program and grows out of sound educational philosophy.

High schools generally have grown too big. Bigness has the advantage of insuring a highly specialized staff, facilities, and wide diversification of curriculum. But how can this advantage be retained without losing the personal relationships between teacher and pupil, between teachers and administrator, and among students themselves?

This personal element, educators realize, not only influences the pupil's learning processes but his behavior as well. "Sheer bigness of the educational enterprise and trouble with pupils seem to go hand-in-hand," the April 1956 NEA *Research Bulletin* reported. "Teachers in big school districts, in big schools, and with big classes reported significantly more trouble with pupils than teachers in small school districts. . . ."

Architects and educators are joining forces in trying to keep quality of instruction in mass education and to create the kind of learning environment which teenagers need. In a number of instances, they have come up with imaginative solutions tailored for specific localities. One of the most promising is the "little school" (also called the "schools within a school" or "house plan").

These terms mean simply that the large school is divided into several smaller unit schools, each with its own faculty. The plan helps to restore the classroom teacher to the position of key person in the school and to give each student an opportunity to make the most of his abilities.

HAGERSTOWN, Maryland, is one of several communities thruout the country that are making use of the little-school idea to tailor school buildings to fit educational philosophy rather than merely to cover the size of pupil population.

When Hagerstown, part of the Washington County school system, faced the problem of expanding secondary-school facilities, it first considered the directions which secondary education is taking in terms of organization and programs to meet the needs of today's youth. School-board members and administrators understood that forms of organization and instructional procedures should influence the design of new school facilities.

They also recognized that increases in school population had transformed their high school from a small, informal, personal type of organization into a large institution where administration could readily mean management of plant and staff rather than guidance of boys and girls.

When the planning of a new senior high school came next on the priority list in the county-wide building program, the educational philosophy and the changing pattern of the instructional program influenced decisions and went hand-in-hand with the evolution of the architectural design.

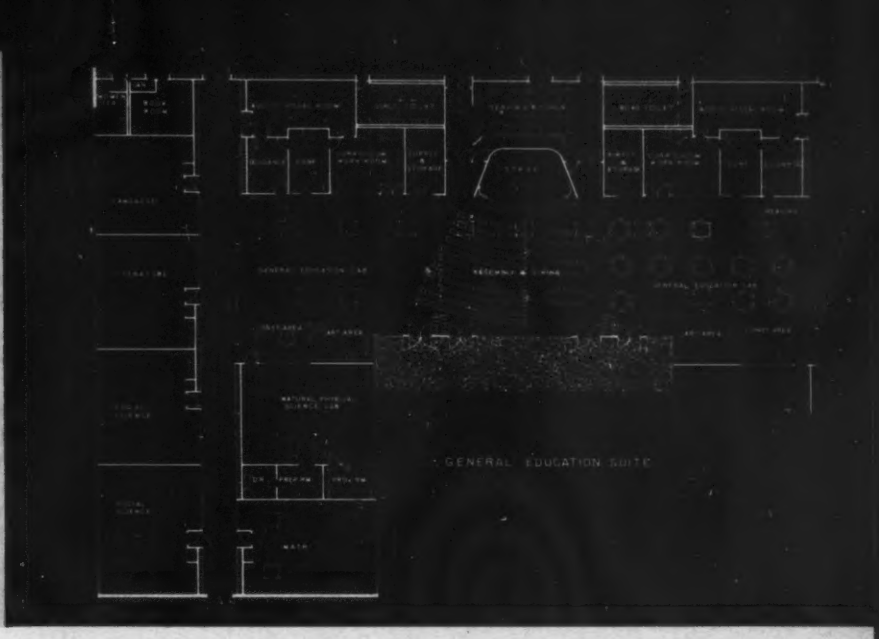
Many persons were involved. The architects worked closely with County Superintendent William Brish, with William L. Donaldson, director of instruction, and with Delbert G. Summerville, supervisor of buildings. Thruout a year of planning, they had the active cooperation of teachers and lay groups as well as the advisory services of educational consultants who had helped set up a long-range program for the county's elementary and secondary schools.

It was decided that instead of housing the city's secondary-school students in a large multistory building on a limited space in the center of town, there should be two complementary schools, each on a

Mrs. Cross and Mrs. Ford, both former secondary-school teachers, are members of the NEA Journal *staff.*

Program Can Have Priority

in building secondary schools.



This is a floor plan of a little school in the North Hagerstown High School.

spacious site on the town's periphery. Study of an aerial photograph of Hagerstown led to the selection of an 80-acre location for the south school and a similar one for the north.

Even these schools would enrol more than a thousand students each—and enrolment would grow. Provision was made, therefore, in the architectural design to emphasize individual students' needs without sacrificing the single advantage of bigness—a highly specialized staff and facilities.

Major and minor changes were made as the job progressed, and all changes, all decisions, were influenced by the educational philosophy. The builders aimed to create a physical plant to meet not only the needs of adolescent boys and girls but also the requirements of the continual readjustment of the program.

To further these objectives, the "schools within a school" plan was followed. The South High building, which has a current enrolment of 1,300 and a capacity of 1,700, is laid out to accommodate two "little schools," one for the ninth grade and one for the tenth. The eleventh and twelfth grades are housed in the traditional way.

This organization departs from the typical little-school plan in that the basis of separation is by grades, with each little school comprising one entire grade instead of a cross section of the student body. (It is planned to organize the North Hagerstown High School by combining the ninth and tenth grades into two little schools and the eleventh and twelfth grades into two little schools.)

Each little school at South High occupies a series of classrooms grouped around a general-education laboratory, which is used as occasion demands—generally by one or several groups or by individuals every period thruout the day.

Each laboratory is the commons, the workroom, for the little school. Teachers meet here for planning sessions; students use it in a variety of ways. All the members of the little school may assemble here and feel themselves part of a group.

Equipped for almost every kind of work—creative, experimental, or research—the lab contains such items as a typewriter, a portable stage, a projector and screen, a tape recorder, a record player, easels, science equipment, supplementary books, and a work bench.

The lab may be occupied by a large number of students or by a handful studying a particular subject; by student committees or by a class in remedial reading. Many children drop in before school or at free moments during the day to work on a project or to talk things over.

Films and filmstrips for English, history, or biology classes are shown in the lab. The stage invites dramatic skits. Or a group may see such special demonstrations as the one on the art of weaving used to enrich the study of *Silas Marner,* or hear a talk on insects by the local exterminator.

Each little school has its own coordinator and its own group of core teachers, who are also homeroom teachers. The tenth grade, for example, has 10 homerooms, each the home base for about 35 pupils.

For half the day, pupils work in this instructional center on the so-called common learnings: languages, literature, social studies, science, and mathematics. Here a small faculty concentrates on a small group of students. During the remaining periods, pupils go to specialized facilities elsewhere on the campus for such classes as art, music, shop, homemaking, business education, and physical education.

The north school, to be ready for use this fall, will have four little schools, each with its own faculty and its student group of 250 to 300 pupils. Two general-education laboratories will serve two little schools each. Folding partitions will make it possible to divide the area of the lab according to the use being made of it. The assembly area may double as a small cafeteria, where mobile hot and

cold plug-in food carts from a central kitchen fit into a serving counter.

How does the school-within-a-school improve instruction? Since each school has its own coordinator, cooperative planning for learning activities takes place. Subject fields are not isolated. The English teacher knows what the history teacher is doing. Math and science teachers plan together. All work as a team, see each other's problems, and share valuable information and ideas.

The facilities available in the general-education lab make it easy —and fun—for students to dramatize significant moments in history; to do extra research and experimenting; to sharpen explanation by making maps, charts, models.

The little-school plan helps to focus attention on the individual pupil. Teachers in the basic instructional centers at South Hagerstown High have been able to adapt the program to the specific needs of the students. Pupils are allowed to move forward according to their individual talents, not forced into a mold or discouraged to the point of dropping out of school because of inability to compete with more gifted students.

With the more flexible schedule and the facilities of the lab, class size and teacher load have been eased. The teacher has been able to provide more challenging activities for the slow and gifted as well as for the average child. The teacher can at one time supervise several groups—the accelerated, the slow, and the remedial—engaged in different projects in the same subject.

Because facilities and atmosphere encourage purposeful and varied activities by groups and individuals, school officials feel that disciplinary problems are fewer. The tenth-grade coordinator of South High School, Jean Moser, believes that one of the chief advantages of the small-school setup is the fact that it gives teachers more time for individual pupils and that the closer teacher-pupil relationship makes guidance a continuous process. Specialized help from the school psychologist and guidance counselors is available whenever it is needed.

Hagerstown's South High School gives a lift to the spirit: low buildings fitted to the contour of the land; warm, soft colors; spacious vistas; buildings planned around program; and an environment for learning that is flexible enough to permit the adaption of the school program to the needs of a changing society. # #

Talented High-School Students

The timeliness of the NEA's project, Identification and Education of the Academically Talented Pupil in the American High School, has been emphasized by recent events. Early in September, J Ned Bryan was appointed to direct the project, which was made possible by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York. Plans for a national invitational conference under the chairmanship of James B. Conant, and for several regional conferences, have been carefully developed since that time.

The national conference will be held in Washington, D.C., on February 6-8, 1958. Two hundred participants have been selected from the many highly competent persons thruout the United States who have been deeply concerned with problems in this area. Classroom teachers, supervisors, guidance personnel, administrators, and research workers from both secondary schools and institutions of higher learning will be supplemented by laymen and members from professional service organizations.

Participants in the Washington conference will be convened first as interdisciplinary work groups and later reassigned to subject-matter groups. Concerns examined will be as broad as "What can be done with and for the academically talented under-achiever?" and as specialized as "The effective use of seminars with high-ability students in science."

Following the conference, the NEA Journal will publish a thought-provoking discussion by Dr. Conant on the education of the academically talented. It is hoped that the conference will lead to new insights and developments.

Each general-education laboratory is the commons, the workroom, for the little school.

Fred J. Maroon Photo

An experimental approach to

BETTER STAFF UTILIZATION

J. LLOYD TRUMP

IN MANY "laboratories" thruout the country, that cohesive compound popularly known as "teacher load" is being put into test tubes and vigorously shaken together with certain other "chemicals" that may affect its composition and reduce its proportions. These experiments in staff utilization will include the effects of additional assisting personnel, materials to aid instruction, better planning of buildings, and reorganization of administrative patterns.

Chief catalytic agent in the tests is the Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School, appointed in May 1956 by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, NEA, and supported by the Fund for the Advancement of Education.

In addition to sponsoring studies of its own, the commission hopes to stimulate secondary teachers and administrators to rethink for themselves the means of making better use of the teaching staff.

Conscientiously aware of the words "experimental study" in its title, the commission does not dogmatically offer any of its findings as final solutions. In some of the test tubes, however, interesting crystals are beginning to form.

Typewriting was taught by TV in Evanston, Illinois, Township High School.

Personnel Assistants

Because studies show that most teachers spend at least 25% of their time doing things which nonprofessional workers might do effectively, the use of supervised assistants is being studied in several school systems.

In Richwood, West Virginia, a bus driver, selected by criteria from the state board of education, gave behind-the-wheel instruction in driver education, while all class work was handled by a certificated teacher. Tests by the State Department of Public Safety showed that the students taught under this experiment emerged with more driving skill than a control group in a nearby school taught entirely by a regular teacher and, furthermore, that they gained this skill at less cost per pupil.

The two groups showed no difference as far as driver knowledge was concerned. The control group made a slightly superior gain in driver attitudes, but this was weighed against the fact that the bus driver-teacher team enabled more students to take the course and lessened administrative problems in arranging students' schedules. Students, parents, bus driver, and teacher joined in approving the course and felt it should be continued.

Noncertificated assistants were used in science laboratories in the Alexander Ramsey High School, Roseville, Minnesota, to meet the demands of increasing enrolments in science upon facilities and teaching staff, and to provide more opportunities for science students to engage in individual experimenta-

Dr. Trump, professor of education, University of Illinois, Urbana, is director, National Association of Secondary-School Principals Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School.

More complete reports of the studies sponsored by the commission will be found in the January 1958 issue of the Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. *Copies of the* Bulletin *can be obtained for $1.50 from NASSP, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.*

tion. University science students and science personnel from industry were used to staff the laboratories during activities periods, after school, and on Saturday mornings.

Preliminary findings indicate improved achievement. Students in the school last year won more first places and honorable mentions in the Minnesota Academy of Science Fair than did the students of any other school in the state.

The provision of clerical assistants for teachers is increasing in many places. In Snyder, Texas, continuous experimentation is being carried on to discover what classroom duties clerks may assume and which clerical tasks should remain in teachers' hands.

In the small high school at Beecher, Illinois, students themselves are doing an unusual variety of clerical jobs. A special adviser helps resolve problems between staff and student clerk, checks on progress, and organizes periodic evaluation of the program. All but one teacher, in the first year, felt that student helpers saved time. Students did not feel that clerical jobs interfered with extra-class activities or grades.

Contract correcting of English themes in the Newton, Massachusetts, high school provides another use of teaching assistants. Selected from nearly 70 applicants, 19 women from Newton and neighboring communities last summer attended a workshop in reading and grading written compositions under the direction of an instructor from the Harvard Graduate School and a local high-school teacher of English. After the workshop, eight readers were chosen for contract correcting.

The program is being carefully evaluated with various types of control groups. Because the grading of papers has been regarded by many teachers as a tedious, time-consuming, and relatively less rewarding experience than many other phases of teaching, this experiment will doubtlessly have implications for broader use not only in English classes but also in other subject-matter fields.

Another example of the team approach to teaching involves using certificated, professionally trained pairs to assist each other. In Newton, Massachusetts; Snyder, Texas; and Jefferson County, Colorado; for example, teachers have organized into teams so that those who are particularly competent to teach given aspects of courses do so in larger-group situations.

A specialist in poetry teaches poetry, while a specialist in grammar teaches grammar; the individual who has particular training in nuclear fission teaches that portion of a physics course. Specialists in evaluation and in the preparation of materials can provide assistance that relieves teachers of tasks which may seem burdensome or for which they may feel not as well qualified.

Aids to Instruction

Laboratories and libraries are changing the role of the teacher in instruction and may result in considerable changes in staff utilization. Altho teachers need time to prepare radio and TV materials, films, slides, recordings, and other visual, electronic, and mechanical aids, the use of these materials may, in the long run, save time.

Two courses – beginning typewriting and tenth-grade English-speech—were taught completely by closed-circuit television last year in the Evanston, Illinois, Township High School. An analysis of these experiments and of the use of TV in other areas of the school program may throw considerable light on the effectiveness of television as a teaching aid at the secondary level. Student achievement was generally satisfactory and conditions for learning were good.

These factors did *not* appear to be changed by the use of television teaching: transmission of information, group rapport, interest, achievement, acceptance, individual activity, quality of teaching.

These difficulties were encountered: lessening opportunities for general student participation, more focus on a few students, more formal activity, more difficulty in asking questions despite two-way communication between viewing and sending rooms, reduced communication between teacher and students, limited opportunities for group discussion.

Offsetting these difficulties were a number of advantages: Films could be shown without lowering shades or taking students to another room, more uniform explanation resulted, specialists on the staff used time more economically, materials were presented more dramatically, lessons were better planned, visibility improved and repetition decreased, use of non-professional personnel was made possible, and evaluation techniques received greater emphasis.

Unique experimentation in the cooperative use of films is now under way in Utah schools. After a survey of 61 physics teachers showed that 41% had less than a minor of college training in the subject, it was decided to use 162 kinescope films to represent an entire course in physics as taught by Professor Harvey White of the University of California. The films are being used both in schools with no science teachers and little equipment and in those with excellent physics

In Richwood, West Virginia, a bus driver assisted the driver-education teacher.

teachers and superior equipment.

The West Side Junior-Senior High School in Omaha is testing the use of locally prepared tapes in teaching modern language to seventh-graders, even tho the teachers do not know the language, and in teaching spelling to large groups. Whether the tapes bring savings in teacher energy, teacher salaries, and costs of books is also under study.

In Newton, Massachusetts, long-playing phonograph records in beginning French are being locally prepared to assist in homework. A set of 18 or 20 records will be made so that a student will have one side of a record each week for out-of-school preparation.

Reorganizing Administrative Patterns

Interesting tests of the assumption that teachers are best utilized when classes are of uniform size, say 25, are being made in Newton, Massachusetts; Snyder, Texas; and Jefferson County, Colorado. The relation between class size and the purpose and content of instruction, and effects of class size on student achievement, attitude, and behavior are being scrutinized.

Sometimes students meet in larger groups one or two days a week and then return to smaller classes for further instruction. Science students at Snyder spend their time outside the large group working as individuals or in small groups in laboratories, field trips, in conferences with teachers, or in the library. Students in the upper third of the class especially are working with a large degree of independence. Preliminary evidence indicates a higher quality of work on the part of students.

Other administrative matters now being carefully studied include the desirability of providing year-round employment for the staff; abolishing study halls or at least relieving professionally trained staff members of their supervision; making it possible for some classes to meet one, two, or three periods a week instead of requiring five weekly classes in all subjects; and re-examining the assumption that all teachers should do about the same things for about the same number of students.

Secondary School of the Future

It is stimulating to speculate about the school of the future. It will, of course, be quite different in many respects from our traditional junior and senior high school. Its character will depend upon the creative imagination of teachers, administrative insights, and the ability to interpret to the lay public the changes that are considered desirable and workable.

What is needed now are school systems that will take advantage of the findings of experimental studies and apply them to the utilization problem. The preceding examples have made evident the interrelatedness of various approaches to better use of the teaching staff. Teacher assistants will not alone solve the problem of better staff utilization, nor will television, tape recorders, changes in class size, or recruiting better quality in potential teachers. Yet all of these things are important, and they will come when there is re-examination of the uses of teachers' time and energy.

The standards of uniformity which now plague the profession can be changed on the basis of carefully conducted and evaluated experimental studies. No one knows exactly what approach is likely to be most productive. There is bound to be some trial and error. The exciting thing in this entire approach is the way teachers grow in service as they conduct this experimentation. In the final analysis, this is bound to result in better secondary-school programs. # #

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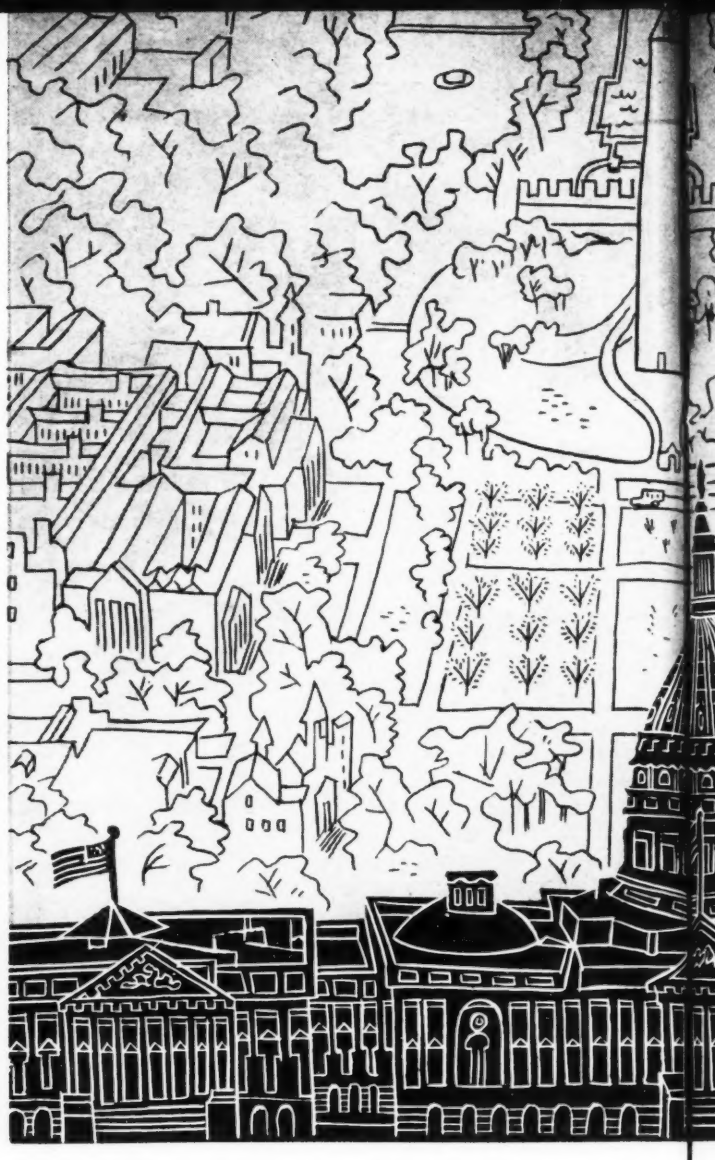
DESTINATION WASHINGTON D.C.



So your class is planning a trip to Washington this spring? . . . this summer? . . . this fall? It doesn't matter when you come—there's always much to see and to do in the Nation's Capital. But wait! Before you come, check this list to see if you've forgotten anything:

1. Have you divided the class into committees—such as transportation, reservations, costs—which will handle every phase of your trip?

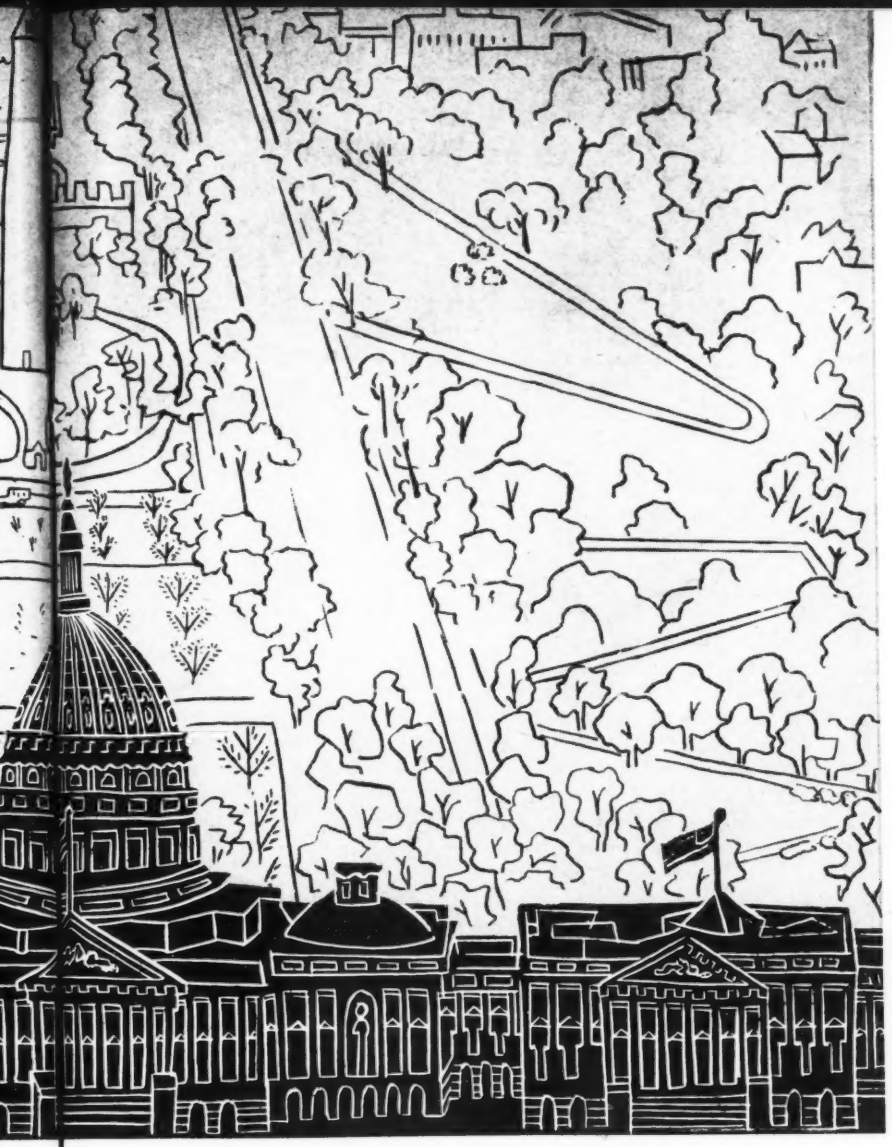
2. Have you taken care of *all* your reservations? Have you told your hotels the time of your arrival and departure, the number of chaperons, the number of boys, the number of girls, and type and price of rooms preferred? Have you notified your hotels of any cancellations?

3. Have you estimated correctly how much money will be needed for transportation, hotel bills, tours, and the like? Have you thought of personal expenses—food, tips, entertainment—as well? Do you know that travelers checks offer a safe way to carry money?

4. Have you written to the Greater National Capital Committee of the Washington Board of Trade (1616 K St., N.W.) for its pamphlets and guides to Washington? For further information, have you been in touch with the National Park Service, Washington 25, D.C.?

5. Have you checked on Washington's temperamental weather conditions? Have you planned to take clothes for any weather change?

6. Have you fully arranged for all the tours you



OTHER THINGS TO DO

1. Keep a daily record of what you see and do and how much you spend in Washington. Each group should handle a certain aspect of your trip.

2. When you get home, prepare a report which will be useful to next year's class. It should include which hotels and restaurants are best, which Washington tours are most worthwhile, what the best route is, and other tips.

3. Have individual members of your group make verbal reports of your trip in a school assembly.

4. Prepare and distribute evaluation sheets among yourselves.

5. Have a class discussion concerning what was most beneficial, what you enjoyed most, and the like.

6. Appoint a committee to write thank-you letters to everyone who helped you.

TO THE TEACHER

Many of the ideas in this centerspread for high-school students were taken from the booklet, "Destination: Washington, D.C.," available upon request from the Greater National Capital Committee.

Reprints of this centerspread, 5¢ each. No orders accepted for less than $1. Order from NEA, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

will take in Washington? Have you provided for their expense? Have you informed the places you will visit of the number of people in your class?

7 Are you prepared to get the most out of sightseeing? Have members of your class done research and reported upon the Capitol, Library of Congress, White House? Have you read how the city of Washington was planned and built?

8 Have you checked thoroly on the best route to Washington?

9 Have you studied road maps to determine lunch and overnight stops?

10 If you plan to travel in school buses, have you checked vehicle registration—state and federal laws?

11 Have you prepared a sensible list of behavior rules?

12 In addition to committees, have you divided your class into groups of five or 10 members with group leaders in charge of each (to keep your class together, to keep you on time)?

13 Have you notified your Congressman of your intended visit? Do you know you must obtain passes from your Senators and Representatives to enable you to sit in the Senate and House galleries?

14 Have you completely informed your parents of your itinerary and plans for your trip?

If you can answer "yes" to all these questions, come along. And good luck!

Teacher-Citizens

TEACHERS register and vote in substantially larger proportions than do many other groups of citizens. This is one of the encouraging conclusions of a recent NEA survey. But the good record can be made even better. Too many teachers still fall short of full civic responsibilities.

Teachers are needed, just as other citizens are needed, to help shape the decisions of popular government. Teachers form a large segment of the population. Their educational level is considerably above the average for all citizens. Thus, communities, states, and the nation are penalized when teachers fail to contribute to the discussion and resolution of public issues.

The nonparticipation of teachers in civic activity may be due to the pressures applied by misguided public opinion, or it may be due to the teachers' own unwillingness to accept full civic status with its accompanying rights, risks, and duties. Whatever the reason, effective democratic government is impaired.

The NEA believes that teachers should claim their full civic rights and accept their full civic obligations. The NEA Citizenship Committee exists to help and encourage them to do so.

This does not mean that teachers should ever use their classrooms as forums to advocate partisan political beliefs. It does mean that every teacher should register, study the records and proposals of candidates, vote regularly in primary and final elections, express opinions on public issues outside the classroom without fear of censorship, and, if he wishes, participate in the proper activities of his political party and serve as a candidate for public office.

A teacher who takes a responsible, adult part in public affairs will be a better teacher because he is a better citizen.

William G. Carr

NEA Executive Secretary

Part-Time Jobs for Students

Evelyn G. Waterman

"No Time for Youth" by Martin Katz in the November JOURNAL gives the impression that students ought not to have outside employment, as it interferes with their school work. I'd like to remind Mr. Katz that all over the country there is a work-experience program which is part of our educational system and is just as important as—or I would say more important than—some of the subjects studied within the four walls of the high-school classroom.

Being a vocationally trained teacher who is in her twenty-eighth year of teaching and one who has had a great deal of experience working in offices, I took exception to several of the statements made in "No Time for Youth." You see, part of my job is to find beginning part-time jobs in the office field for our seniors in Battle Creek High School.

Mr. Katz states that surveys show that "80% of urban high-school boys and girls over 16 hold down regular part-time jobs. These jobs, along with school attendance, often exceed 60 hours a week for the pupil."

I wonder what area was surveyed. Here in Michigan a minor can work and go to school only a combined 48 hours a week, and Battle Creek authorities certainly enforce this ruling.

In the last two paragraphs of his article, Mr. Katz says: "The picture I have presented here is admittedly overdrawn. It does not pretend to depict all teen-agers or to condemn all part-time jobs. . . . There are many virtues in part-time work, but that is another story. . . ."

So, I wish to tell that other story briefly, using Michigan students and Battle Creek High School students in particular as my subjects.

This Cooperative Training Program that I would like to describe is not just local; it is considered so important in our educational system that it is subsidized with federal funds. In Michigan last year, we had 116 schools offering its seniors this supervised training program, with a total of 9,092 boys and girls participating. Mutiply this by 48 (states) and you will get approximately the size of this part-time job-training program.

We who work with and supervise these working boys and girls are proud of their accomplishments both in school and out, and feel they do as well as those who attend school all day.

Our Battle Creek situation is not much different from that of thousands of other schools thruout the nation. Our objectives are to teach those habits, attitudes, and skills that are considered desirable on the job.

The combination of part school and part work is often just the right one to keep in school some students who might otherwise want to drop out. However, the cooperative program is primarily planned to meet the needs of students who plan to finish school but who also are eager to begin practical training in a real job.

Placement is done carefully so the student will feel successful and the employer will be pleased with the achievement of his part-time employee. Students are paid the prevailing rates for beginning workers.

Each employer submits a prepared rating sheet several times a year on which he checks the student on such items as punctuality, quality and quantity of work, appearance, and attitude toward coworkers. These rating sheets determine the marks which the students receive for these laboratory experiences.

This program provides a gradual transition from the high-school environment to an adult world, and both students and employers play a major role in bringing about the adjustment. # #

Mrs. Waterman is coordinator of business education, Battle Creek (Michigan) High School.

Does Higher Education Influence Student Values?

PHILIP E. JACOB

COLLEGES and universities must face a hard fact about their present accomplishment before they can plan realistically for their role in the not-too-distant future. For the most part, they seem to lack the capacity to influence students, or maybe today's students are incapable of being influenced by higher education.

In any case, a study of what happens to the values of American students of today shows that their college experience barely touches their standards of behavior, quality of judgment, sense of social responsibility, perspicacity of understanding, and guiding beliefs.

This means that if institutions of higher learning are expected to fulfil the historic humanistic mission of what we have called liberal education, they will have to learn how to do it. They are *not* doing it now with most of their students.

This conclusion stems from an analysis of three main types of data, which social scientists obtained from over 100 institutions: studies of student attitudes conducted during the last 15 years, recent evaluations of the outcomes of general education and other courses and of various methods of teaching, and a number of comprehensive self studies by particular institutions. [A detailed inventory and analysis of this material is available in a report prepared by Dr. Jacob for the Edward W. Hazen Foundation: *Changing Values in College*. Harper. 1957.]

Dr. Jacob is professor of political science, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia. Readers' comments on his article are invited.

FORTUNATELY, not all evidence is negative. There are some institutions in which students' values seem to develop, some teachers whose influence penetrates and stays, and some educational techniques which help open the sensibilities as well as the intellectual perceptions of some students. But the prevailing situation concerning the influence of college on contemporary student values is as follows:

1. The values of American college students are remarkably homogeneous, considering the variety of their backgrounds and their relatively unrestricted opportunities for freedom of thought and personal development.

A dominant characteristic of the current student generation is that the students are gloriously contented, both in regard to their present day-to-day activity and their outlook for the future.

The great majority of students appear unabashedly self-centered. They aspire to material gratifica-

SOME REACTIONS FROM . . .

W. C. H. Prentice, *dean, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pennsylvania:*

WHEN Dr. Jacob says that students are "contented" or "self-centered," to whom is he comparing them? To themselves in high school? To earlier college generations? To college-age students who are not attending college? Or to some ideal? He never makes it clear what the standard of reference is, and the investigations themselves are notable for their lack of useful control groups.

If it should turn out to be true that college students are remarkably like their noncollege compatriots, would that mean that the colleges are failing in their job? Or merely that values of the kind studied are formed early and by influences with similar impacts on college and noncollege people?

Indeed, what are the real or implied alternatives? It is said that students are self-centered. Would we have them government-centered? Church-centered? It is said that students are "gloriously contented." Would we have them discontented? It is said that students accept the business culture of our society. Would we have them reject it? It is said that students expect their futures to depend on their own actions. Would we make them fatalists? Each charge against contemporary student values implies that they are worse than some other alternative.

Is the research adequate to demonstrate what real alternatives may exist, given the constraints of our kind of society? Even if we assume the situation is about as painted, can we be sure that there are better possibilities about the reasonable alternatives? The report shows measurable changes from freshman to senior year in a number of dimensions that are highly acceptable to many college teachers and administrators. However, these are given little prominence or are dismissed as mere conformity to college norms.

What measures could ever discriminate such conformity from genuine convergent changes resulting from common experience—the very thing that the report seems to hope for and claims not to find?

Finally, suppose that, all other doubts satisfied, we

tions for themselves and their families. They intend to look out for themselves first and expect others to do likewise.

Social harmony, with an easy tolerance of the dissident and the different, also pervades the student environment. Conformists themselves, the American students do not expect others to conform to the socially accepted standard. They are, for the most part, ready to live in a mobile society without racial, ethnic, or income barriers. But they do not intend to crusade for nondiscrimination, merely to accept it as it comes.

Altho most students value the traditional code of moral virtues, they are not inclined to censure those who choose to depart from it. Nor do they feel personally bound to unvarying conformity to the code, especially when a lapse is socially sanctioned. For instance, systematic academic cheating is the custom at many major institutions.

Students normally express a need for religion and often attend church on Sundays, but their religion does not carry over into the secular world. The majority appear to believe that God's place is in church or home, not in business or community.

American students are also only dutifully responsive toward government. They expect to obey its laws and pay its taxes—without complaint but without enthusiasm. Except for voting, however, they are politically irresponsible and politically illiterate.

They have contradictory attitudes toward international affairs. They predict another major war within a dozen years, yet indicate that during the immediate future they expect to give little personal attention to international problems.

Students by and large set great stock by college in general and their own college in particular. Only a minority, however, seem to value their college education for its intellectual contribution or for its nurturing of personal character. Vocational preparation and skill and experience in social "adjustment" head the rewards which students expect from college.

The available data indicate that the profile just given may broadly characterize 75 or 80% of the students. To the remainder, some or most of the generalizations are not applicable. Also, on some issues, such as how much government the country needs, students have no common mind. But the dominant impression is of a nation-wide norm of values pervading the campus.

2. The main effect of higher education upon student values is to bring about general acceptance of a body of standards and attitudes characteristic of college-bred men and women in America.

There tends to be more homogeneity and greater consistency of values among college seniors than among freshmen, indicating that the senior has ironed out serious conflicts of values or at least achieved a workable compromise. Thruout college, changes are rarely drastic or sudden. Such changes as do occur tend to emerge on the periphery of the student's character rather than to affect his core of values.

The values of college graduates do differ in some ways from the rest of society. They are more concerned with status, achievement, and prestige. As a whole, they tend to be more self-important, more conservative, more tolerant, and less superstitious and prejudiced than those without college.

It seems reasonable to credit these differences to college, partly to its positive influence in bringing students' outlook into line with a "standard," partly to a subtle selective process which tends to eliminate those not sufficiently adaptive to acquire the value-patterns of the college graduate.

But to call this process a liberalization of student values is to use a misnomer. The impact of col-

accepted the most extreme interpretations of the report. Could we change the situation without risking a much worse moral climate and without jeopardizing our major purposes?

Are there values on which all colleges (or at least a working majority of people within each college) can agree? After trying to get educators to agree on a set of goals in this area, I think not.

If, theoretically, we could settle on such values, would we know how to teach them? Could we teach them without interfering with traditional educational goals? Would we know how to recognize success?

The report sometimes seems to imply that college students should agree on values that are not accepted by noncollege people.

A clear dichotomy of that sort is improbable on many grounds. Is it in any way desirable? What other criterion of success would be acceptable?

The central purpose of liberal education is to impart those values concerned with the life of the mind. The student should learn to put a high value on ideas, on the dispassionate examination of evidence, on philosophic and artistic contemplation, on humility about his conclusions, pride in the use of his creative and analytic gifts, and respect for the rights and dignity of others who are making their own way along the intellectual road. A college that tries to do more or other than this will endanger its primary goals.

Certainly not all institutions are succeeding in this task; probably none is attaining its ideal. We need careful research to measure our achievement.

Irwin Abrams, *professor of history, Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio:*

As Dr. Jacob states, some colleges do appear to have a definite influence upon student values. They are, for the most part, small liberal-arts institutions where the students sense that a devotion to certain values is expected of them.

There is also evidence that values can be affected when a college course sets out to involve the student in a real-life situation of social or political action. Cer-

lege rather is to socialize the individual, to refine or shape up his values so that he can fit into his society more congenially.

3. For the most part, students' values do not vary greatly whether they have pursued a conventional liberal-arts program, an integrated general-education curriculum, or a professional-vocational option.

The more liberally educated students may take a somewhat more active interest in community responsibilities and keep better informed about public affairs. But the distinction is not striking, and it does not occur consistently. It does not justify the conclusion that a student acquires a greater maturity of judgment on issues of social policy or a more sensitive regard for human values because he has had more liberal education.

There is also no solid evidence of a delayed reaction. The college alumnus exhibits no unusual trademark identifying his undergraduate curriculum.

The same negative conclusion applies to the general effect of social-science courses. Altho many students testify that such courses have increased their understanding of world affairs or interest in politics, the values actually expressed by social-science students—either verbally or in action—are little different from those of others. There is little evidence, for instance, that actual participation in public life has increased as a result of students' taking social science.

4. Quality of teaching has little effect upon the value-outcomes of students' general education.

Students have demonstrated an uncanny capacity to evaluate the performance of instructors according to objective criteria. Yet, by and large, the impact of the teacher they consider good is indistinguishable from that of the poor one—at least in terms of his influence upon the students' values.

Some teachers, however, do exert a profound influence on *some* students, even to the point of causing particular individuals to adopt new and usually more socially responsible vocational goals. It is perhaps significant that faculty members having this power are likely to be those whose own value-commitments are openly expressed and who are outgoing and warm in their student relationships.

5. The method of instruction seems to have only a minor influence on students' value judgments.

Under special circumstances, "student-centered" teaching reportedly has resulted in a more satisfactory student adjustment and a more congenial learning situation. But the weight of evidence gives little indication that different teaching methods—say the lecture system versus recitation, conference, discussion, or tutorial methods—greatly alter students' beliefs or behavior.

However, individual students are often deeply affected by participation in experiences which vividly confront them with value issues, and possibly demand decisions on their part whose consequences they can witness.

But the practical difficulties of working such activities into the educational process are very great, especially in the general part of the curriculum in which large numbers of students are involved. For the essence of a potent laboratory practice in citizenship, a creative work camp, a meaningful experiment in international living, a stimulating work-study curriculum, or even a well conceived field study is this: Each student personally engages in the action.

Vicarious experience does not deliver the same punch, even tho role-playing techniques in the classroom and the analysis of challenging case studies and problem situations do arouse more interest.

6. Similar as the patterns of student values appear on a mass view, tain laboratory experiences in citizenship courses have left students more actively concerned with political issues. Also, such off-campus experiences as work camps and foreign study profoundly affect student values.

Are there indications here for educational planning? What would happen, for example, if the philosophy course were coordinated with student experience in helping formulate and maintain the college code of conduct?

What about the extracurricular activities in which the great majority of students invest so much of their emotional lives? Are not the highest loyalties more likely to be exercised in the stadium and fraternity house rather than the classroom?

Perhaps the corollary of the Jacob report would be a study of those influences on the campus that sustain the student's disposition to go along unthinkingly with the crowd and that stunt the growth of idealism.

No one has to worry that colleges are producing radicals, but there is cause for grave concern if what they are actually producing are herds of materialistic, self-centered conformists. For the college can remain faithful to its mission of preserving and carrying forward a great intellectual and spiritual heritage only when it is giving its students a liberal education. If this means the freeing of the mind and spirit of the student to realize his highest potentialities, then educators are faced today with an unprecedented challenge to make liberal education worthy of its name.

James S. Coles, *president, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine:*

IN PROVOCATIVE style, Professor Jacob achieves with his readers that "relation which is warm and considerate, but at the same time mutually aggravating." His report, a product of much study and sincere concern, if taken at face value is a heavy indictment of our colleges. As such, it cannot be cavalierly dismissed.

However, in evaluating the Jacob study, certain essential factors must be considered. The study is a secondary collation based upon the work of numerous others, some dating back almost two decades. The re-

the intellectual, cultural, or moral climate of some institutions stands out as having a peculiar potency.

The response of students to education within these institutions is strikingly different from the national pattern.

Such colleges and universities do not fit any institutional type. However, they seem to have in common a high level of expectancy of their students. *What* is expected is not the same.

For instance, the institution may primarily stress intellectual initiative, profound respect for the worth of work, world-mindedness, or a dedication to humanitarian service. But everyone is conscious of the mission to which the institution stands dedicated, tho this is not necessarily loudly trumpeted at every convocation, nor elaborated in the college or university bulletin.

In these colleges, students seem drawn to live up to the college standard, even if it means a wrench from their previous ways of thought.

With a distinctive quality of this kind, an institution evokes a deep loyalty from students, alumni, and staff. A community of values is created which persists long after graduation and often influences the choice of college by the next generation.

7. Recent research has identified certain personality characteristics of students which filter their educational experiences.

Some students have a set of mind so rigid, an outlook on human relations so stereotyped, and a reliance on authority so compulsive, that they are incapable of understanding, much less accepting, new ideas. Such students quail in the presence of conflict and uncertainty. They crave "right answers," recoil from creative discussion.

Under most conditions of general education, where content and teaching method have been more or less standardized to suit the average student, the personalities just described become dead wood. A few institutions, however, are exploring special approaches to general education for this type of student, with promising results.

These students rarely achieve the autonomy of those whose personality is freer to start with. But they have shown striking gains in critical thinking and developed more responsible and sensitive social values when their general education in social science, for instance, has been tailored to their particular needs. Because the number of students with such personality characteristics is large and growing, this type of experimentation seems unusually important.

THE POINTS presented here imply that no specific curricular pattern of liberal education, no pedigree of instructor, and no wizardry of instructional method should be patented for its impact on students' values. Indeed, the impact of American higher education as a whole upon the value patterns of college youth as a whole seems negligible.

The values of some students do change in college. But even with these, the impetus to change does not come primarily from the formal educational process. It comes from the distinctive climate of a few institutions, the individual and personal magnetism of a sensitive teacher with strong values, or the value-laden personal experiences which students occasionally undergo during college.

In short, college can contribute to the growth of a student's values only when it penetrates the core of his life and confronts him with fresh and often disturbing implications, which are different from those which he and his society have taken for granted. This can hardly occur as a by-product of a curricular assembly line. It requires a highly personal relationship between the college community and the individual student—a relationship that is warm and considerate, but at the same time mutually aggravating.

sults of objective-type or multiple-answer questionnaires are generally recognized to be markedly influenced by the manner in which the questionnaires are drawn; some of those involved are open to criticism. Further, these studies are dependent upon the *verbalization* of deep-seated social, religious, and moral attitudes and values—a verbalization difficult even among professionals devoted to such considerations.

Assuming, for the moment, validity of the data presented, the inferences derived must be carefully examined. In the opinion of many, the derivations are not uniformly sound. For example, the report states that religion does not appear to be a vital concern of most students. This inference is apparently based upon multiple-choice selections in response to the question: "What three things or activities in your life do you expect to give you the most satisfaction?"

According to the choices made by the students examined, in terms of *giving satisfaction*, religion rates poorly relative to career, family relationships, or leisure activities. But is the primary role of religion to "give satisfaction"? With equal objectivity one should examine the basis for conclusions of the report concerning material gratifications and other factors.

Tolerance has been successfully taught in our schools and churches for a generation. Even tho we may not like it, the same tolerant attitude could well carry over to what Professor Jacob describes as "morality—with elbow room"; there is no distinction between areas where tolerance is desired and where it is to be avoided.

Altho some may take issue with parts of Professor Jacob's report, we are indebted to him for focusing upon vital problems of our age his dedicated concern. The inculcation of proper values is obviously important, and to the extent this is not accomplished in the home, the church, and the school, or is nullified by the social mores, colleges and universities will have to fill the void. Without question American students tend far too much to conformity and need a sense of greater dedication. And if any society is to advance, its values must continually be improved. # #

SPEECH DEFECTS

are every teacher's responsibility.

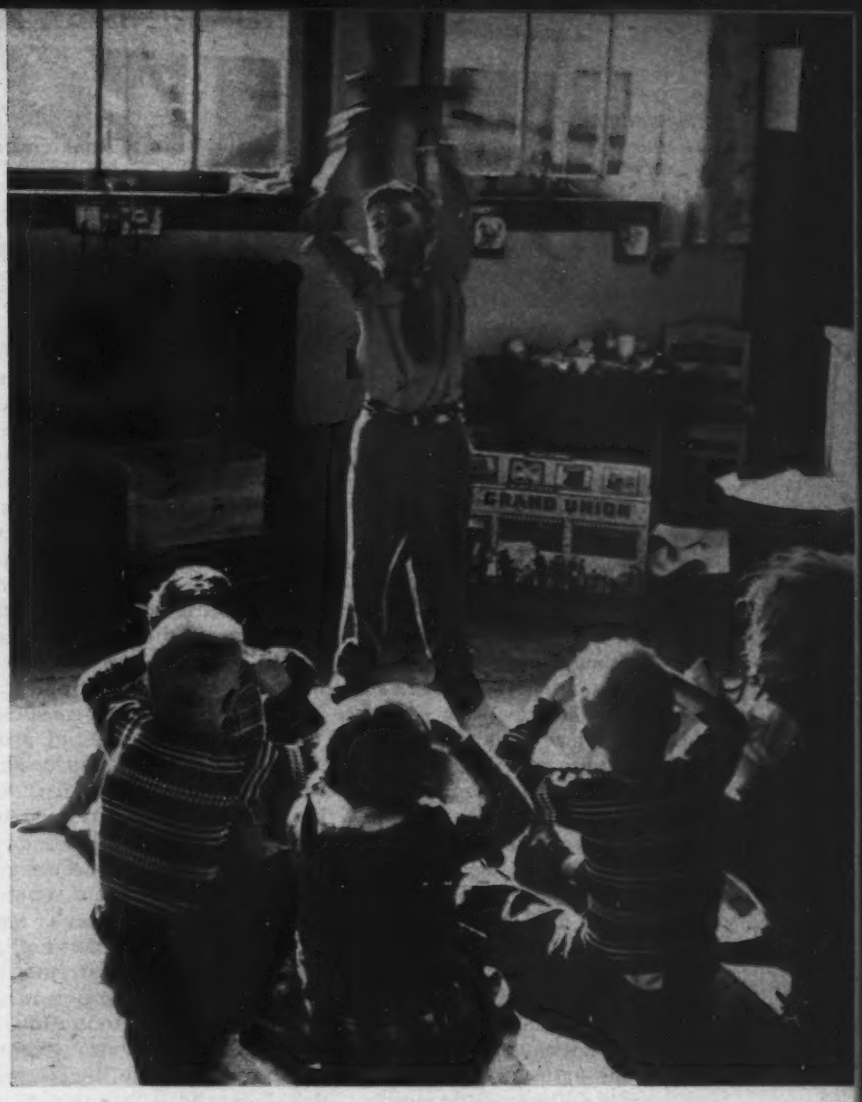
ELISE HAHN

IN A classroom, Joe is stuttering violently. An embarrassed teacher keeps her eyes away from his face. "Mary, *you* tell us about it," she says brightly. The boy sits huddled, trying to insulate himself against the grins of the group, hating the teacher, who thinks that she has successfully ignored his stuttering and that she has made things easier for him.

Tommy lisps on his *s* words in reading. "Say 'see,' " says the teacher. "Thee," says the boy. They repeat this exchange several times. "Try harder," urges the teacher. Watching his expression, she begins to feel inadequate.

The problem of what to do for speech defects in the classroom is consistently with us, since 6 to 10% of our pupils have such defects.

An article such as this cannot make a teacher a speech specialist. It can, however, suggest helpful procedures and emphasize that every teacher can and should do something about children's speech defects, whether she teaches in a small system which does not employ a speech therapist or in a large one which does. There are several fundamental things the teacher can do:



If a child fears talking before the group, the teacher may arrange for him to demonstrate some object to the class, with more action than words.

Recognize the nature of the speech defect. There are three types of defects encountered among school children. The *first* and most common is the articulatory defect in which one or more sounds are distorted. The *second* is the defective voice itself—harsh, nasal, hoarse, excessively high- or low-pitched, too loud or faint. The *third* is stuttering, which may vary from slight hesitations and repetitions to prolonged blocks and struggle behavior.

The child with a malformation such as a cleft palate, the one with poor muscular control, or the one with hearing loss may have both the first types. However, causations of all three may be psychological: Insecurity and hostility in the home and poor adjustment in the peer group may have disturbed the acquisition of speech. Early illnesses or accidents can also affect language learning. Occasionally the primary cause may no longer operate, but the habit will persist.

If the teacher can classify the defect, and observe its physical manifestations, she can often gain greater understanding of the child's needs.

Keep records. Defining and noting evidence of the child's feelings about his relationships with other children can start the teacher on a plan of action. The record may include a description of the speech fault with specific details on behavior, the dates of observations,

Dr. Hahn is associate professor of speech at the University of California at Los Angeles and new president of the Speech Association of America, an NEA department.

and evidence of the effect of the disorder on the child's personality.

Set a good example. If the children identify themselves with the teacher, they will unconsciously imitate her behavior. One first-grade teacher was amazed over the number of lispers in her class. "I can't underthtand it," she said.

Children will not only copy a teacher's articulation, but also her rate of speaking, tone of voice, inflections, gestures, pet expressions, animation, or lassitude. If the teacher's voice sounds nasal, harsh, impatient, or indifferent, she may be unable to stimulate the children to want to improve their voices, since the model she offers is unattractive.

The teacher also serves as a model for listening. The child with the speech defect, realizing that he is different, may either withdraw from the group or act aggressively toward it. If the teacher listens to him attentively, with a show of personal interest, the rest of the children will follow her behavior, and the individual will gradually achieve group membership.

Create a secure and pleasant environment. The individual's attitudes toward himself will often stand in the way of his improvement. If his status in the group is poor, a child will have little motivation to improve. Often, the teacher's greatest contribution to speech correction is to find a way to make the child feel valued by the group. Sometimes a youngster has few assets or skills, and several years of cooperative effort among successive teachers will be needed to build his concept of himself as a worthy individual.

The teacher may motivate by encouraging a child's use of good speech habits, such as looking directly at his listeners, adding interesting details, saying difficult sound combinations correctly, speaking so he can be heard by everyone, or changing his voice to show different feelings.

By praising these factors specifically, the teacher encourages the individual to continue improvement even as she calls the group's attention to what constitutes good communication. The praise must be specific, not "How interesting!" or "Thank you for telling us."

Manipulate the speaking situation. If a child fears talking before the group, the teacher should arrange speaking situations for him that proceed from simple to complex: He first tells *her* something about home; he talks about some possession to her and to another classmate; he reads aloud to a small reading group; he demonstrates some object to the class in a situation which requires more action than words; finally, he discusses familiar subjects before the group.

Work directly on articulation. The sounds which are most commonly defective and develop late in speech are *s* and *z*, *ʃ* and *v*, *l*, *r*, and both voiced and voiceless *th*. The place and method of production of these sounds can be shown to all primary children. For instance, the children can learn songs, repeat words in games, and say poems together. The whole group can pause for a moment to see and hear how the teacher's tongue jumps up and touches her gum ridge when she says *like*, not *wike* or *yike*, and how she uses her lips when she says *run*, not *wun*.

She can introduce guessing games, such as the one in which the child who is "it" thinks of an object within a certain area and others take turns guessing, "Is that the thing you are thinking about?" Thus they obtain practice on *th*.

Our chief want in life is somebody who shall make us do what we can.—Ralph Waldo Emerson

The description and demonstration of correct sounds can be involved in reading readiness and beginning reading. Ear training should be given so that the child's discrimination between poor and clear production can be developed. Sounds may be named after their characteristics: *L* is a tongue-tip sound; *s* is a blowing or hissing sound.

When the teacher hears a word containing a sound needing improvement, she should take it out of context, isolate the sound to be practiced, and repeat it with the accompanying vowel, blending the two smoothly. She may describe how she makes the sound, pointing out lip, tongue, and jaw action, repeating the sound in the word without exaggeration, and placing the word in a variety of short phrases. She may contrast poor and good production.

Often she should ask why it is wise to use clear articulation, aiming for the answer which indicates that its use will enable the child to be understood quickly and easily. Then the practiced word is placed back in its communicative context, and the reading, the singing, or the game continues.

If all pupils practice sounds, there will be no self-consciousness when the teacher takes the speech-handicapped child aside for a moment of private practice.

The correction activity, whether group or individual, must seem pleasurable, natural, and friendly, rather than critical. Reward must be inherent in appreciation of repeated attempts, in praise for success, or in self-satisfaction.

Work on vocal problems. If the voice is consistently hoarse, or is nasal or muffled by nasal obstruction, the child should be referred to the doctor. However, habits of tension cause most poor voices.

The children should set out to discover what makes a good speaker. They might conclude that he is one whose speech is clearly audible, who doesn't talk too fast, whose tone of voice sounds interested and sincere, and whose pitch varies to show his meanings. All these aspects of voice can be readily understood by the children, particularly if the teacher is fairly good at helpfully imitating the poor counterparts.

An assignment of listening may be made so children can report on their listening to the policeman, the janitor, or the store-keeper, and can make judgments of the feelings behind voices.

Any creative dramatics will provide excellent situations for discussing what a voice can do. Often the high, strained, or whining voice

which develops from tension can be improved once the children begin to make judgments on what they like and dislike in other people's voices.

Work with the stutterer. This defect cannot be treated by drill or improved simply by a child's desire to talk more fluently. If his stuttering is pronounced, the teacher should discuss it with him in an objective but friendly way. With a trusted and unshockable listener, he can talk about his feelings, achieve some release from anxiety, and tolerate his hostility and shame.

The teacher should indicate that she knows his stuttering will vary with his feelings; she does not minimize his fears. She hears him out, knowing that her interested listening is better therapy than soothing, unreal statements. She suggests that he try to participate in all class speaking situations, but that she will not make him do so. If she excuses him from oral activities, however, he should make it up in written work.

If a child's stuttering is obvious, he may become less self-conscious if he refers to it before other children. He is not to be protected, but the class, by the teacher's example, must learn to wait out his stuttering and value his ideas. If a school psychologist is available, he should assess the child's adjustment. The teacher is often the key figure in this adjustment, accepting his stuttering and looking beyond it to discover his true worth.

Integrate speech correction with all class activities. Neither speech correction nor general speech improvement is a subject to be studied by the children at a particular interval. Speaking is a way of behaving. The need for good speech must be bound with the need for communicating in reporting, discussing, and reading, in social studies, art, music, spelling, and physical education. The teacher can accomplish something not possible for the speech therapist: She can provide for transfer of training from the individualized short practice session to regular classroom speaking situations. # #

HOW TO USE
THE ARITHMETIC TEXTBOOK

FOSTER E. GROSSNICKLE

A TEXTBOOK has been defined as "an assistant teacher in print." Certainly the textbook in arithmetic, when properly used, is a most effective instructional aid in that subject, especially for pupils beyond the second grade.

One of the functions of an arithmetic teacher is to provide adequately for the role the textbook should play. Many pupils use it chiefly as a source of practice material. But this limited usage destroys the textbook's chief function —to help the pupil in learning arithmetic.

The modern textbook in arithmetic provides three types of subject matter, which may be classified as *developmental, practice,* and *social applications.* The developmental work deals with the meaning of the four arithmetic processes and ways of operating with them. The practice work, or drill, consists of examples to be solved by application of the processes. The social applications provide problems arising in daily activities which may be solved by the arithmetic process.

The greatest misuse of the textbook may occur in dealing either with developmental work or with problems based on social applications of number.

The textbook usually gives a concise explanation of an arithmetic process. However, pupils need background to interpret the quantitative statements.

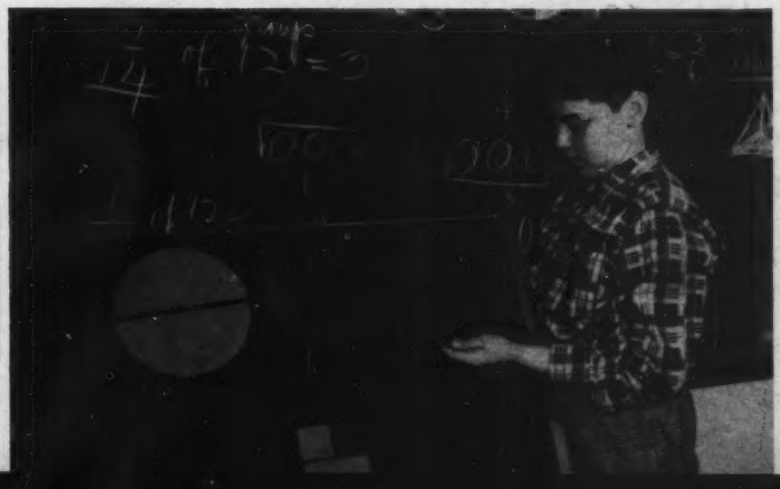
Since many pupils lack this background, they should acquire it before reading the textbook. This can be done if the teacher first demonstrates the process and then has the pupils work out for themselves the steps in the development of the process by using manipulative and audio-visual materials.

SUPPOSE we consider the development of the steps in compound subtraction that are needed to subtract in this example: 42—18= ?

The development in the textbook will show that it is necessary to change the four tens and two

Dr. Grossnickle is professor of mathematics, New Jersey State Teachers College, Jersey City.

Classroom materials should include supplementary aids to help pupils objectify a process.



ones to three tens and 12 ones. This explanation is mere verbalism to pupils who do not understand the decimal structure of our number system and how it is possible to regroup a number. To be sure that pupils understand what it means to regroup a number, the teacher should demonstrate with manipulative materials how to express 42 as three tens and 12 ones.

He could use rectangular strips to represent the numbers given in the example above. A strip marked into 10 equal squares would represent one ten, and four such strips would represent the four tens in 42. Two squares cut from another strip would represent two ones.

The pupils would see that it is impossible to take eight ones from two ones and that, therefore, it is necessary to take one of the four tens and convert it into 10 ones, thus making 12 ones. Now the eight ones can be subtracted.

The teacher can place 2″ x 3″ cards, splints, or other markers in the pockets of a place-value chart to show the steps in subtraction, or he can give a visual representation at the chalkboard as shown in the accompanying chart.

A marker in ten's place has a value of 10 markers in one's place. The teacher has the class explain each step in the representation. Chart A shows four tens and two ones; Chart B shows the number regrouped as three tens and 12 ones; Chart C shows one ten and eight ones subtracted from three tens and 12 ones.

By watching teacher demonstrations and using manipulative and visual materials such as rectangular strips, squares, discs, and other homemade devices, pupils can discover the meaning of number and number operations. Once this has been accomplished, the textbook becomes a valuable source book which they can use to refresh their understanding as they do their arithmetic problems or when they review a process at a later date.

The second classification of subject matter in the arithmetic textbook includes examples for practice or drill. The need for drill is as great as the need for each of the other two classifications.

This phase of the program usually receives ample treatment in arithmetic classes. It is important to remember that practice or drill should come *after* a pupil understands a process. Drill does not help enrich or build concepts.

The third major classification of subject matter deals with social applications of number. Here the pupil encounters verbal problems. Some of these textbook problems have social significance, and some are verbal quantitative statements having no social application. (Social applications need not be limited to textbook verbal problems. Better ones come from the child's everyday experiences.) Verbal problems often prove to be frustrating to the pupil who lacks background because they do not convey meaning to him.

To read verbal problems with understanding, a pupil must be able to identify the problem question and the factors on which it depends. Then he is able to attempt a rational solution to the problem.

The vocabulary or the concepts used in a problem may be unfamiliar to the pupil. He may not understand the quantitative relationships among the various numbers. These and other factors may affect his ability to solve verbal problems. In the final analysis, the difficulty in problem-solving results from a lack of background in interpreting the printed page.

In order to help the pupils profit most from experiences in dealing with verbal textbook problems, the teacher should follow the five procedures given below.

1. If the problems deal with a unit theme, a picture, or a chart, discuss the unifying idea before assigning the problems on the page. Be sure the pupils understand the concepts introduced.

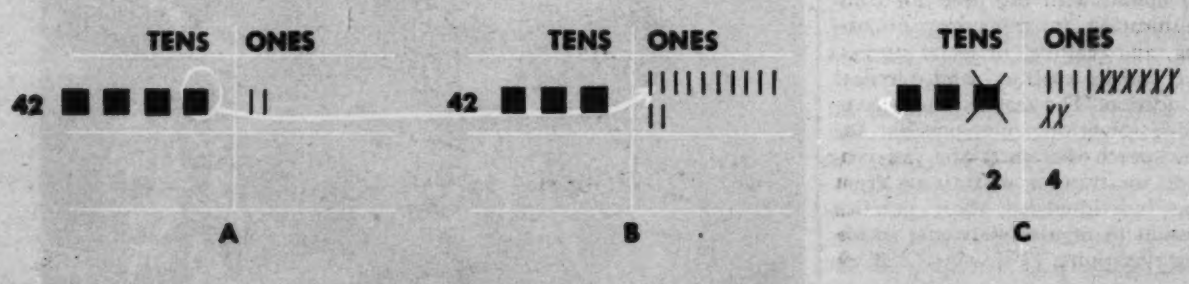
2. Emphasize quality of solutions rather than the number of problems to be solved. Challenge the superior pupils to give more than one way of arriving at a solution to a problem.

3. Have the slow learners skip the problems and exercises which will not be meaningful to them. But be sure the pages skipped do not break up the continuity of the developmental program.

4. Encourage the pupil to read a problem slowly. Have him think, "What is the problem question to be answered?"

5. Use the unit themes in the textbook as a basis of further investigation to enrich the program in arithmetic.

For an effective arithmetic program, classroom materials should include (1) supplementary aids to help pupils objectify a process before they read about it and (2) a list of suitable library books for reference and research to enrich the presentation of topics in the textbook. When a classroom is so equipped, the textbook can truly become an assistant teacher in print. # #



WILLIAM K. SELDEN

What Is an Accredited College?

When your students need to know, here are some facts for them.

"AN ACCREDITED college" is a phrase frequently seen and often heard. The term is widely printed in college catalogs and repeated to prospective students by university representatives. However, despite its common use, it is not generally understood, even by high-school teachers and advisers.

When Nancy Smith, who lives in a small town in Ohio, found no teacher able to answer her questions, she wrote to the National Commission on Accrediting: "What are the advantages of attending an accredited college rather than a nonaccredited one? How does a college become accredited, and if it is so advantageous, why aren't all colleges accredited?"

High-school teachers and senior advisers are expected to answer different questions about many colleges and universities. In the past, accrediting has been one of these questions, but seldom an important one.

But conditions now are changing. Vigorous competition for admission to the "best" colleges and universities has given increased importance to the question of accrediting. During this period of intensified competition, more and more high-school students and their parents are turning to teachers for advice and information. Consequently, as accrediting gains in importance, teachers must have some knowledge of its meaning and implications for their students.

Basically, accrediting is the process whereby an organization or agency recognizes a college or university or a program of study as having met certain minimum qualifications or standards. There are two main types of accrediting organizations: regional associations and professional agencies.

Regional Associations

There are six regional accrediting associations:

1. Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, which includes the Canal Zone, Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, and Puerto Rico;
2. New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, which includes Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont;
3. North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, which includes Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming;
4. Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, which includes Alaska, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, and Washington;
5. Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, which includes Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia;
6. Western College Association, which includes California and Hawaii.

Altho some of the regional associations did not originally undertake accrediting activities, all six now assume that responsibility in their respective geographical areas.

Five of the regional associations also include secondary schools which have been accredited in a manner similar to that employed for colleges and universities.

Professional Agencies

In addition to the six regional associations, there are 20-some

Reprinted from April 1956 "Cosmopolitan."

"Teen-age kids."

Dr. Selden is executive secretary of the National Commission on Accrediting, Washington, D.C.

agencies operating on a national basis which are concerned with professional programs in specific areas of study. These areas include architecture, business, chemistry, dentistry, design, engineering, forestry, journalism, landscape architecture, law, library science, medicine, music, nursing, optometry, osteopathy, pharmacy, podiatry, psychology, public health, social work, teacher education, and veterinary medicine.

The criteria for accreditation employed by these agencies naturally relate to the program of study of the particular professional field; hence they are concerned with only part of the operation of an institution. It is for this reason that professional accrediting has frequently been referred to as segmental accreditation.

This is in contrast to the approach of the regional association, which is interested in the evaluation of an institution as a whole.

As contrasted further with the regional associations, whose membership comprises only institutions, the professional accrediting agencies are exceedingly varied in composition. Altho a few of them do include institutional representation, the majority represent the individuals who are the practitioners of a particular profession.

Criteria for Accrediting

In the evaluation of a college or university for accreditation, various criteria are employed, depending upon the type of agency. The regional associations usually consider the following factors in evaluating an institution: aims and programs, administration, curriculum, faculty, finances, instruction, library, physical plant, students' extracurricular activities, and personnel services, as well as experimentation and self-study.

An evaluation of an institution is made by a visiting team of educators, selected from faculties and administrations of other colleges and universities. Written reports, interviews, and observations are employed.

From these sources of information, the visiting team prepares a summary of conclusions for the benefit of both the accrediting agency or association and the institution itself. This summary helps the former decide which institutions will be accredited and helps the institution itself to take its own steps for self-improvement.

In many ways, the accrediting procedures of professional agencies are similar to those of the regional associations.

Social Implications

So much for the basic details of accrediting. What about its social implications?

In nearly every other nation, education is almost exclusively, if not entirely, a responsibility and activity of the central government. As such, it is controlled and directed by government agencies, frequently with authority concentrated in a ministry of education. In this country, the individual 48 states have the legal responsibility for the education of our youth. In some states, notably New York, the state approval or accreditation of colleges and universities, even outside its own borders, is a matter of major concern.

Nevertheless, in practice, education in the United States, and especially collegiate education, is not solely a state function. Colleges and universities are supported and controlled by states, counties, municipalities, religious denominations; some are completely independent. It is this fact which has encouraged the development of accrediting, in the place of state control, as a kind of voluntary upgrading force and protecting influence for society.

Most of the 1,800-some universities, four-year colleges, junior colleges, and other degree-granting institutions do not need the pressures from accreditation to provide good education, but a few do require this type of impetus in order to fulfill their social obligations.

Implications for the Student

What does accreditation mean for the individual student like Nancy Smith, who inquired about the meaning of an accredited college?

Here are some things about accreditation that college-bound students should know:

Of the approximately 1,100 bachelor's degree granting institutions listed by the U.S. Office of Education, over 85% are accredited by the six regional associations.

Those refused accreditation are judged to be presently deficient in one or more features usually considered necessary qualities for a stable and substantial educational institution.

Some colleges that do not have regional accreditation nevertheless offer academic opportunities well suited to individual students. And institutions not yet accredited are continually improving themselves. Within a recent four-year period, an average of seven four-year colleges were newly accredited each year.

In order to obtain a license to practice a profession in most states, the candidate must be a graduate of an accredited institution. Similarly, under United States Civil Service regulations, the status of a federal employee is influenced by whether he is a graduate of an accredited or nonaccredited institution.

Accreditation is but one factor to be considered in selection of a college. In addition to academic standing, the following items should also be considered: location, size, costs, scholarships, job opportunities, fraternities or sororities, athletics, extracurricular activities, and physical facilities.

For one student it may be essential to select an accredited institution and for another, relatively unimportant. Guidance personnel and teachers need to know the facts about accreditation in order to help students make a wise selection. # #

A mimeographed statement,* Accredited Schools and Colleges, *may be obtained on request from the NEA Research Division. This nine-page publication contains a list of accrediting agencies and their addresses, a bibliography of books and articles on accrediting, and brief descriptions of various phases of accrediting.

The recognized national professional accrediting agency for teacher education is the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. Annual lists of institutions accredited by the council and statements of its policies and procedures can be obtained by writing to the council, Mills Building, Washington, D.C.

Come to the Aid of HR 4662

IRVING F. PEARSON

THIS year teachers can do something about their federal income taxes. Specifically, teachers can work in support of HR 4662, the King-Jenkins Bill, which would enable members of the profession to deduct education expenses from their taxable income.

The NEA has laid the groundwork for passage of HR 4662 by arranging for mass distribution of two publications explaining the King-Jenkins Bill, by holding a series of meetings in key Congressional districts, and by carrying on a campaign of education and information among its members to make them aware of the potential advantages of HR 4662.

Early this month, the House Ways and Means Committee will begin hearings on proposed revisions of the Internal Revenue Code. A witness for the NEA is scheduled to appear before this committee to testify in favor of the King-Jenkins Bill.

No less than 25 Senators and Congressmen introduced similar bills during the first session of the 85th Congress. All these bills are designed to bring greater justice for American teachers as they make out their annual tax returns.

IN ESSENCE, these bills are meant to deal with an injustice which the *Celina* (Ohio) *Daily Standard* described in these vigorous words:

"A businessman is after a fat contract. So he loads the prospect into a private plane and flies him to Florida. They live in $60-a-day hotel suites, eat the best food, drink the best liquor, take in all of the night spots.

"Every penny—the liquor bill and the tips and all—is tax deductible. It's part of the expense of making a buck.

"But an underpaid teacher goes to school for the summer. He lives in the cheapest room he can find, cooks beans on a hot plate, buys dog-eared textbooks.

"Tax deductible? Are you kidding? Not if he is going to school just because he wants to become a better teacher. Not if it is going to qualify him for a promotion or a raise in pay."

The editorial also describes the proposed remedy:

"The NEA believes that teachers who spend money in order to make more money should be eligible for a tax deduction in the same way that a businessman who spends money to make more money is. And so they have had California's Congressman King introduce a bill to allow them up to $600 a year deduction for educational courses."

AT PRESENT, teachers can deduct the expenses of attending summer school or evening classes only if they take these courses in order to keep their present positions. The Internal Revenue Service has taken a very narrow view of this requirement; in effect, it has ruled that a teacher cannot deduct these educational expenses unless he would have been fired had he not taken the courses.

The Internal Revenue Service has been so restrictive that it has become almost impossible for a teacher to deduct educational expenditures.

Here's a real case from Chicago:

"At the time I went on leave, I was told by the Office of Internal Revenue that my traveling expenses during the time for which I was paid my salary were deductible from income tax. As instructed, I kept a careful account of my expenses, which were considerable. . .

"My income-tax return was prepared by an accountant. . . . The return was filed, and I received a check for the amount under the refund which I claimed. In October 1956, however, I was called into the office of the director of internal revenue and advised that in July 1955 a decision had been rendered on a case which denied such a deduction unless the expenditure was required to keep one's position, and I was given a bill for $903.72 for income tax for the year 1953. This was approximately the amount which had been refunded to me.

"As the Chicago Board of Education does not *require* that any teacher expend any money to keep a position after passing the examination to secure it, no Chicago teacher will be able to deduct any expense for professional improvement."

IT is no coincidence that the proposal for a revision of the Internal Revenue Code comes during a year when all members of Congress are up for re-election. This means that Representatives will be particularly sensitive to the wishes of their constituents, especially when these wishes reflect a demand for just and equal treatment.

Many state and local teachers associations have passed resolutions in favor of equal tax treatment for the professional expenditures of teachers. These resolutions are now being forwarded to members of the House Ways and Means Committee as well as to other members of Congress. They are being reinforced by letters from individual teachers who cite examples of the capriciousness and arbitrariness of the rulings of the Internal Revenue Service.

The NEA is working hard to gain equitable treatment for the professional expenses of teachers. But the staff work in Washington must be reinforced by political support from teachers thruout the country—in public and private schools, in kindergartens and in universities.

To paraphrase slightly: Now is the time for all good men (and women) to come to the aid of HR 4662. # #

Mr. Pearson, chairman of the NEA Legislative Commission, is executive secretary of the Illinois Education Association.

OPINIONS DIFFER

E. C. Bonhivert Photo

Workshops for teachers are a part of the Glencoe, Illinois, summer program.

"STILL planning to take the family on that camping trip next summer, Joe?"

Joe looked up, annoyance written all over his face. "I don't know. If the schools adopt that schedule they're talking about, each of my kids would have a vacation at a different time of the year. The whole idea burns me up!"

"You mean the schools may run straight thru the year?"

"Something like that. They call it the four-quarter plan. Each kid would be in school nine months and out three, but in order to keep the schools open and the teachers on duty all year, the vacations would be staggered," Joe explained.

"What started all this?"

"Oh, it sounded like a good idea to run the schools all year. Many of us figured the taxpayers had a lot of dough invested in the schools, and there wasn't much sense letting them stand empty all summer.

"But we didn't figure on what it would do to the families. Take Marg and me, for instance. Our Kenny would have his vacation in the winter, Mary in the spring, and Tony in the fall. We could no longer go anywhere together on vacation. The more I think about it, the less I like it, even tho it sounds like good business sense. I'm pretty sure I'm going to vote against it in the referendum. But if it passes anyway, it would sure play heck with our plans."

This kind of conversation may sound like a very personal, unscientific way to decide an issue as important as that of keeping the schools open all year long. But aren't important issues often decided on personal grounds? And are parents the only ones who decide issues this way? Listen in on a couple of teachers:

"Jack, how do you feel about this year-round employment idea?" asked Peggy, as the two teachers were leaving the school.

"I think it's great!" replied Jack. "It's about time teaching became a full-time job. I have a hard time raising a family. I'd rather work all year, like other people, at what I've prepared myself for, instead of having to look for another job every summer to make ends meet."

"I don't think it's so great," said Peggy. "I don't know about you, but I can't take working with kids all year. I've got to have time off to recharge my batteries. People don't know what teaching takes out of us. Why don't they just pay us more for the time we do put in?"

These teachers are also reacting to a broad issue in terms of what it means to them personally.

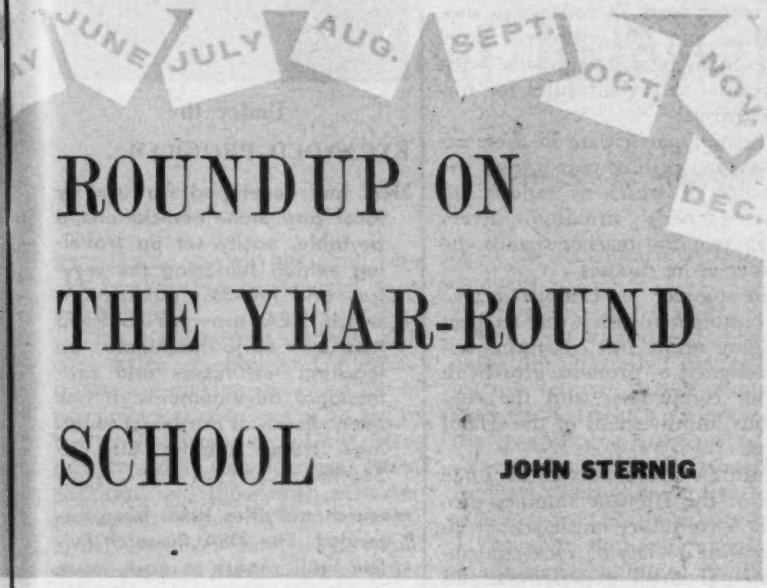
What is this broad issue? What is meant when people use terms like year-round school, twelve-month plan, four-quarter plan, career-teacher plan, extended-service plan, or resort to longer phrases such as "full use of educational services"?

IS THIS actually *one* issue? I do not think so. In my opinion, the fact that so many different terms have evolved indicates that there are many issues. When we use the term "year-round school," we should recognize that it means different things to different people. Arguments and controversies can be violent unless the antagonists first take time to define and clarify their terms.

For example, such terms seem

Mr. Sternig is assistant superintendent of schools in Glencoe, Illinois.

The Journal *invites, for possible use in the "Our Readers Write" column, reader reaction to the year-round-school concept.*



ROUNDUP ON THE YEAR-ROUND SCHOOL

JOHN STERNIG

to fall into several broad categories:

1. Operation of the schools on a four-quarters-a-year basis.
2. Operation of the schools for a longer portion of the year than the conventional period of nine or 10 months.
3. Operation of the regular academic program, plus a summer program, with varying degrees of relation between the two.
4. Year-round terms for high schools, colleges, vocational schools, training schools, lab schools, outdoor schools and camps, recreation or youth-activity programs.
5. Extended-service term for teachers, with emphasis on inservice growth and school-improvement activities.
6. Numerous variations of any or all of the above.

THE idea of the year-round school is not new. In 1904, Bluffton, Indiana, instituted the first four-quarter plan, with each child's attendance limited to three of the quarters. During the 1920s, more than a dozen school systems were operating all year round, but by 1930, this number had dwindled to six, and by 1950, only Chattanooga was on the four-quarter plan. Evidently, in most systems where the idea was tried, it did not solve the problems of overcrowding, acceleration, or enrichment. In the postwar years many taxpayers, school patrons, and educators have again become greatly interested in the year-round-school concept—with varying motivations. Some see the operation of a school building in the same way they see the operation of a factory, where full use of facilities has definite economic advantages, such as reduction of costs by more complete and efficient use of plant and personnel.

Others look to it as a possible way to speed up the completion of a child's education. Still others see it as a means of enriching the quality of education without increasing the total number of years. Where pressure of increasing school population puts a strain on facilities, many look to the lengthened school year as a means of dividing the load more evenly.

Some favor keeping children in school for a greater part of the year because it can keep them usefully occupied and provide summer experiences not possible during the academic school year. (Also, one of the historic reasons for a long summer vacation has lost its force now that our population has become predominantly urban and comparatively few children are needed for summer agricultural work.)

Finally, some see the year-round school as a way to improve teachers' salaries by giving them opportunities to work a larger part of the year.

THESE real or theoretical advantages should be weighed against such findings as those resulting from a study made by the Los Angeles city school districts in July 1954. This report, known as *The All-Year School,* is a comprehensive presentation of the past history as well as the current aspects of the idea.

Among the difficulties reported by this full-scale investigation were: the staggered-vacation problem, plant-maintenance problems, transient pupils, confusion in reporting and record keeping, interference with community recreational activities and with summer college attendance for teachers. There were also the problems of general community inertia and of reorganizing the schools four times a year.

No action was recommended by the study, which concluded that a revival of the quarter plan was not worth the struggle.

School administrative circles reflect somewhat the same view. A poll of superintendents in 1955 revealed that 72% of those answering were opposed to the quarter plan, while only 28% expressed varying degrees of favor. However, the same poll revealed a middle ground in which an extended school year was considered potentially valuable for such activities as outdoor education; school camps and farms; enriching experiences in the arts, crafts, and sciences; and special opportunities for both the retarded and the gifted.

In June 1957, the governors conference at Williamsburg, Virginia, considered a memorandum entitled "Full Use of Educational Facilities," which urged year-round use of school plants. Discussion centered around three main proposals: (1) addition of an optional summer session, (2) the old four-quar-

ter plan of nine months of school and three months of vacation for each child, staggered so that schools are in session 12 months of the year; (3) full-year school for all, with short vacations at intervals.

This is the first time in the history of the idea that the governors have considered year-round use of the schools. Most of the governors indicated they would reserve judgment until they returned home for study and advice.

Current thinking on the year-round school could probably be summarized by saying there seems to be little enthusiasm for a quarter plan but that considerable thinking is being done about a general lengthening of the school year, the addition of carefully planned supplementary summer activities for children, and some form of in-service program to promote teacher competency.

ALL three of these objectives either are being achieved or may be developed under variations of the Teacher Career Plan initiated in Glencoe, Illinois, in 1946. Glencoe's plan is based on the premise that a teaching career involves full-time employment and growth in professional competence. Teachers work 11 months of the year, with one month's vacation. The regular school year runs nearly 10 months.

I have always been more than a little suspicious of those who go into the teaching profession from missionary zeal. . . . In my experience, lofty purposes alone do not often make good teachers. Teaching is, without doubt, a serious business; but overseriousness in a teacher is fatal. It is excitement in teaching, the sheer fun of it, the sharing of knowledge and enthusiasm, the opportunity to go on learning, which make teaching, at its best, not only the highest of the arts, in my opinion, but the most exhilarating of companions.

—Mary Ellen Chase from* Why Teach? *edited by D. Louise Sharp. Henry Holt and Company. 1957.

Following this, teachers spend an additional five weeks on activities designed to promote growth in professional competence.

These activities are organized in three major categories: (1) workshops, committees, and projects carried out "on campus" in Glencoe; (2) course work in colleges or universities; and (3) approved travel to promote personal growth, with additional salary subsidies for foreign travel.

Teachers participate in these activities in a three-year cycle, the sequence of which is tailored to each teacher's situation. Every fourth year the teacher spends the summer as he chooses.

The summer "on campus" activities, custom-made each year to meet changing needs and circumstances, are designed to promote growth in teacher competence and the continuous improvement of the school system.

Children are involved in some parts of the Glencoe summer program. A voluntary music school offers a wide variety of vocal and instrumental music experiences, and a youth-activities program offers several sports, arts and crafts, dramatics, science, and nature study.

In the future, a voluntary summer program planned and coordinated with the regular school year could meet most needs and interests and provide numerous experiences not practical during the usual school term. There could be activities for children gifted in various ways, for the slow learner, the unmotivated child, and the handicapped child.

IN ITS professional-growth program, Glencoe sees a partial answer to the growing concern over merit rating. The career-teacher plan suggests that personnel policies which require participation in a coordinated program of opportunities for personal and professional growth can produce a high-caliber staff. Coupled with definite means for evaluation and elimination of misfits, the plan can achieve what proponents of annual merit rating basically desire—an upgrading of the quality of teaching.

The concept of the year-round school has many ramifications; it must be subject to many local adaptations. I believe, however, that in Glencoe's teacher-career plan lies the basis for a truly flexible year-round school. # #

DID YOU KNOW?

Under the EXPANDED PROGRAM . . .

NEA has developed for use by local and state associations a portable, easily set up traveling exhibit featuring the services and low-cost publications which NEA provides to keep teachers up-to-the-minute on teaching techniques and professional developments. It has been shown at dozens of meetings from Atlantic City to Seattle.

research activities have been extended. The NEA *Research Bulletin* will report in each issue highlights of several studies instead of details of only one. Much of the information will be presented in graphs, charts, and pictograms. Details of each study will be reported in separate publications.

sixty-two network radio and TV features pertaining to education have been produced with NEA assistance since July, when the expanded program was adopted.

further cooperative activity has been mapped by the joint committee of NEA and the Magazine Publishers Association, which proposes to expand such projects as use of magazines in the classrooms and exchange of speakers from NEA and MPA at local, state, and national levels.

the schedule of the recently appointed salary consultant, Eric Rhodes, is filled thru March. Already he has taken part in 14 state salary conferences as well as six national and regional conventions. Demand for his services with local salary committees has been so great that an additional consultant must be employed to meet all the requests.

Preparing the child for

Psychological Referral

STANLEY C. MAHONEY

WHAT do you tell the child who is about to be referred to a psychologist?

This is a pertinent question at a time when teachers and administrators are making increased use of psychological resources as an aid to better understanding of the mentally retarded, slow learners, gifted children, and those with behavior problems. Many school systems either employ a full- or part-time psychologist, share with other schools the services of a central psychological unit, or make use of the services of nearby clinics and agencies.

The complex relationship of the teacher, the parent, and the psychologist has received considerable emphasis, but relatively little attention has been paid to the explanation to be made to the child, once the advisability of psychological evaluation is agreed upon.

Altho many referrals are initiated by a teacher or school administrator, it is generally the parent who tells the child. This by no means leaves the teacher out of the process. Rather, the teacher's help is highly important.

Because parents themselves are frequently confused about the psychologist's role and function, they may be unable to help make the world, including psychologists, seem safer to the child who is already frightened and disturbed. The teacher's approach, therefore, can be invaluable in creating the right emotional climate when psychological referral is suggested to the parents, and in exploring with them possible ways to prepare the child for his contacts with the psychologist.

NOW, just what does the psychologist do? Initially, the child is usually referred for psychological evaluation. In such an evaluation, the psychologist attempts to gain some understanding of the child's intellectual functioning and the adequacy of his emotional adjustment.

Probably the psychologist will administer a standard intelligence test, such as the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children or the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale, and he may also use several projective tests, such as the Rorschach, Szondi, Machover Figure Drawing, or Michigan Pictures, to gain a more complete understanding of the child's inner world.

More specialized tests may also be utilized, depending on the specific nature of the child's problem. For example, where reading difficulties are present, special reading tests may be administered.

The psychologist will talk with both parent and child and will frequently observe the child in a special diagnostic play situation. He will not make a physical examination, administer medicine, or use drugs of any kind. Most children find the psychological evaluation a pleasant experience, and, more often than not, want to stay longer.

But what do you say to the child who asks, "Where am I going and what will happen?" Both of the most frequent explanations have their dangers: comparisons of the psychologist with a teacher or with a physician.

Many parents compare the psychologist, directly or indirectly, with a teacher and picture him as "a person who will help you by giving you some tests." Frequently, when the child has been having difficulty in school, the parents will say more specifically that "the psychologist will give you some tests so we can help you do better in school."

FOR some children this explanation may be very apt, but for others, especially the child who is fighting school, this interpretation serves only to augment anxiety and resistance. To most children, the

"Let's face it. For me those are good grades."

Mr. Mahoney is assistant professor of psychology, Division of Education and Psychology, and clinical psychologist, Psychological Service Center, Fort Hays Kansas State College, Hays, Kansas.

word "test" has a rather concrete meaning, and to many, especially those who are finding school difficult, the prospect of a test can be far from reassuring.

Marcia, for example, had been referred to the psychological clinic with the explanation that she would be given some tests "to see what is wrong." A rather withdrawn child of average intelligence, Marcia had very little self-confidence and felt incapable of meeting the standards of a perfectionist mother. In school, she characteristically became acutely anxious when confronted with a test of any kind, and altho she knew the material, her test results were usually extremely low.

The explanation given to Marcia about the psychologist served only to intensify her anxiety and fear. Her hesitant comment during the psychological testing procedure to the effect that "these tests aren't like the ones we have in school" and the relief that accompanied this observation were strongly suggestive of the agitation she had been experiencing.

A second common explanation compares the psychologist with a physician and may suggest to the child a physical examination. Such an examination holds no terrors for many children; to others it brings immediate thoughts of strange smells, pointed instruments, and even painful experiences.

For example, a great many children associate "doctor" and "shots." Indeed, many have had little contact with physicians except to receive shots of one kind or another.

The case of Johnny illustrates the pain and torment a child may suffer when under the impression that the psychologist is "something like a doctor." Johnny came to the clinic accompanied by his mother and sat rigidly beside her while waiting to be seen. He looked extremely uncomfortable and frightened and watched furtively everyone passing by. Only reluctantly and in stony silence did he go with me into the playroom. When I asked him what was the matter, he hesitated, then murmured, "When do I get the shot?"

When convinced that there would be no shots, Johnny entered into the testing procedures in a spontaneous and cooperative manner.

WHAT, then, should you say to the child? There is no pat answer or magic formula that will work in every case. As in teaching, we must start where the child is. Often the child needs no explanation or special preparation. In other cases, a simple statement to the effect that "the psychologist is someone who will talk with you" serves the purpose. Too frequently we forget that the child does not view the psychologist thru an adult's eyes; too often an explanation is given, even pushed, more from the adult's need than in response to the child's need.

As already stressed, it is probably best to avoid phrases or concepts which have a personal and painful meaning to the child in view of his current difficulties and past experiences. Such words as "doctor," "tests," "examination," and even "teacher" may be loaded with emotion. No one best explanation exists, and there is no substitute for taking into consideration the particular needs of the individual youngster.

Perhaps most important is the intangible attitude which is conveyed with the actual words. The more an emotional climate of optimism pervades the explanation, the better. It can only be to the child's detriment if he thinks referral to the psychologist is punishment or a last resort.

IF THE foregoing seems too formidable, just remember that often it is not in the power of the teacher or the parent to make the psychological referral an anxiety-free process. Some anxiety is normal and very, very human.

Thru our own attitudes and example we can best help the child to tolerate the normal anxiety arising in the face of an unknown experience. At the very least, by being more aware of some of the complexities involved, we can avoid adding to the child's anxiety and thus help make the psychological referral a more beneficial experience for him. # #

Q AND A

Q. Two little girls got into a pinching quarrel. One with long, sharp fingernails drew blood from the other. I separated them, discussed the issue, and decided to cut the long nails. Did I exceed my authority?

A. A teacher stands *in loco parentis;* it is her duty to protect pupils from injuring each other. A teacher who permits a pupil to retain a dangerous instrument might be considered derelict in her duty. Therefore, cutting this child's fingernails appears to be legally the same as taking a knife away from a pupil who has hurt another with it.

Q. What is the NEA's latest recommendation on salaries for classroom teachers?

A. The NEA Representative Assembly in July 1957 adopted the following resolution: "For the present, salaries should range from $5,000 to $11,500."

Q. How are school-board members selected?

A. The most recent information on this question was published in the April 1950 *Research Bulletin.* At that time, 87% of the school boards in city school systems were elected and 13% appointed. The percent of elected boards is considerably higher in the smaller districts than in larger ones.

Q. How many college degrees are granted each year?

A. According to a study of the U.S. Office of Education, the following degrees were earned in 1955-56:

Bachelor's	311,298
Master's	59,440
Doctorate	8,903
Total	379,641

Q. How many states require the bachelor's degree for teacher certification?

A. The 1957 edition of the *Manual on Certification Requirements* (NCTEPS) showed that 37 states, including territorial jurisdictions, require 4 years of college preparation for elementary teachers. Forty-seven of the states and territories require 4 years of preparation for secondary teachers, and 4 of them require 5 years.

♦ *Send your questions to "Q and A," NEA JOURNAL, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. NEA Research Division will prepare answers.*

OUR LOCAL ASSOCIATIONS

DUES AND BUDGETS

EFFIE O. STANFIELD

JUST as a checkbook gives dependable evidence of an individual's personal characteristics, so the dues and budgets of local associations identify the services which classroom teachers associations render to the united profession.

An analysis recently made of a cross section of the budgets of local associations thruout the country shows how local associations are working toward developing an informed profession, training new leaders, and improving instruction.

Tho the local associations involved did not include either the smallest or largest groups in the country, they did seem to be fairly typical. Certain trends, similarities, and practices are evident.

Apparently, few locals engage in money-raising activities. Practically all revenue of local associations is derived from payment of individual yearly dues of from $1 to $12, with the prevailing figure between $3 and $5. The budgets studied varied from $117 to $32,423.

The survey indicated that a number of local associations operate on the unified-dues plan. The smallest group, with 39 members, said that a unified-dues plan was responsible for the school system's long-time 100% membership in local, state, and national professional organizations.

With one exception, all the local budgets provide either full or partial expenses for delegates to state, regional, and national conventions.

One association pays one-sixth of its president's teaching salary, since his school grants him some released time to do field work.

The budgets show that local associations are generally diligent in affiliating with the NEA and with state associations where such affiliation is possible and, in a few states, with the state departments of classroom teachers. Many local associations also pay dues to various civic organizations.

Several large associations allocate funds to maintain a headquarters office and to employ a full-time secretary.

One group with 258 members offers a hospitalization plan as a special service to its members. The plan contract specifies benefits of $3.33 per day on a hospital room, with the number of days not to exceed 21. The association allots $2 from the dues of each member to finance the plan.

As a whole, local associations allocate the most money for such items as the expense of officers, work of committees, local leadership conferences and workshops, publications, expenses of delegates to conventions, legislation, public relations, and office expense.

A smaller amount of money is allocated for such items as affiliations with NEA and other groups, support of future teachers clubs, American Education Week, community projects, speakers, and international relations.

A study of budgets indicates that the finances of local teachers organizations are handled in a commendable, businesslike manner. Only one association reported a deficit at the end of the year, and that deficit was small. Some locals report assets, including government bonds and other investments, in addition to office equipment. One organization reported an investment of $1,800 in bonds of the state education association, which is building a new headquarters.

Evidence shows that a well planned budget adopted at the beginning of the fiscal year and put into operation promptly lays the foundation for a worthwhile program. # #

Mrs. Stanfield teaches English and social studies, McAlester [Okla.] Junior High School. She was the 1956-57 vice-president of the Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA.

TEACHER BIRDS—5

Frequently found passing along, hinting at, and bruiting about gossip concerning other teachers, other schools. Has been known to hold up an original two-bid to tell how poorly prepared Nick was in Spanish because last year's teacher didn't do a good job.—*From* School Birds, *18-frame color filmstrip. DCT-NSPRA. Order from NSPRA, NEA. $5.*

To teachers at all levels: This is your regular feature for idea-swapping. Share your classroom know-how with other members of the professional family. For instance, send us suggestions of 50 to 200 words on one or more of the following topics:

1. Making the most constructive use of the substitute teacher.
2. Improving the school assembly, making it an integral part of the school's educational program.
3. Helping children improve their study habits.
4. Helping students make up work after an absence.
5. Handling the gift problem.

The JOURNAL will send to each contributor whose item is printed his choice of any publication that has been listed in the JOURNAL's "New NEA Publications" this school year.

No materials can be returned. Send entries to "Teachers' Trading Post," NEA JOURNAL, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Better Study Habits

MEMBERS of our staff decided several years ago to try to solve homework problems by teaching the children better study habits. We enlisted the parents' help by giving them a clear understanding of our study-skills program.

We start the program at the first of the school year by showing the seventh-grade pupils a series of filmstrips entitled "Learning How To Study." The topic of each filmstrip is discussed before and after showing. (Our study period comes at the end of the day after all subject-matter classes are finished.)

On each filmstrip the students finish a short questionnaire covering salient points, and file it in the "Study Help" section of their notebooks. To this section they add study tips as the program progresses.

When the "Learning To Study" series has been finished, the English classes continue the program by receiving instruction in how to make the most effective use of the school library. They become familiar with the card catalog, the various reference books, and the advanced, college-type dictionary.

We encourage the students to write research papers in their own words and coach them in the proper presentation of book reports. They learn to take notes in class and to organize them for future reference.

While this concentrated instruction goes on in the English classes, teachers of other subjects help the children put their new skills to practical use in such matters as note-taking and reporting, and in other ways which apply to the particular subject area.

At the end of the first semester, we hold a review session of filmstrips, how-to-study tips, and other significant points emphasized in the program. The students then work out a self-rating study-habits scale and use it as a basis for further efforts toward improvement.

—KENNETH KOGER, *principal, Junior High School, West Lafayette, Ind.*

Inexpensive Visual Aid

CLASSROOM teachers can pep up their lessons and introduce color into the visual-aids program by using chalk of different colors.

Some processes are difficult to explain by using one color of chalk alone. For instance, a drawing in one color of a nuclear power reactor for generating power can be unnecessarily confusing to students. It can be made much clearer if each stage of the process is shown in a different color.

For the most effective results, only two or three colors should be used to highlight a drawing or chart. Too many colors are confusing.

The English teacher can employ colored chalk to diagram sentences, making one particular part of speech, such as verbs, a different color from the rest of the words in a sentence.

The social-studies teacher may draw graphs and charts showing economic trends in several colors. The math teacher can use colored chalk successfully in drawing difficult constructions in geometry or trigonometry.

The uses of colored chalk in the classroom are many and varied. Any teacher by using his imagination can think of different ways of using this common and inexpensive visual aid.

—IRVIN LATHROP, *Iowa State College, Ames.*

Newcomers Club

THE PLIGHT of the new child—his adjustment to an unfamiliar world of work and play—had long troubled the teachers of our school. We were sympathetic and concerned, but we appreciated our limitations as adults in making a child happy in a strange environment.

After all, only the children themselves can really make the young stranger feel *accepted.* We turned the problem over to our student-council members, who considered the matter briefly and came up with an answer.

They formed a "Newcomers Club" in which all members of the council automatically become members of the club. Each homeroom in the school has a boy and a girl as representatives on the council.

These two pupils become responsible for the orientation of any newcomers to their room. They take the new child under their wings, introduce him to everyone in the homeroom, include him in games on the playgrounds, and proudly convoy him thru other phases of his new school life.

—JOHN C. PEARSON, *principal, The Deer Path School, Lake Forest (Ill.) Public Schools.*

Adopt a Ship

FEW TEACHERS can take their pupils on actual excursions to faraway places with fascinating names, but teachers can bring these distant places to their classrooms thru the Adopt-a-Ship program. General purpose of the plan is to develop an understanding and appreciation of the American Merchant Marine.

Some 271 ships were adopted by schools last year. For details concerning participation, a teacher should write to the Adopt-a-Ship Plan, American Merchant Marine, Suite 325, 17 Battery Place, New York 4.

In Clinton, Iowa, the plan was adopted more than a decade ago by a sixth-grade class of 11- and 12-year-olds. To these pupils living in the Middle West such terms as *flying fish, shooting the sun, Gulf Stream, Southern Cross,* and even *lighthouse* gave only vague mental images. But they got firsthand information about commerce afloat and ships crisscrossing the

world by corresponding with the captain and officers of "their" ship.

One of the first souvenirs the captain sent was a flying fish which had landed on the deck of his ship. It was stuffed, shellacked, and in perfect condition so that all the pupils could see that the "wings" were really fins.

A picture of the captain showed how he held his transit instrument to shoot the sun. Accompanying the picture was a map with explanatory data which he had used on one of his trips. The location and names of lighthouses on the map induced the children to do some research on the history of lighthouses on the east coast of the United States.

The captain's explanations of ocean currents, his interpretation of longitude and latitude, and his stories of navigation in hurricanes off Cape Hatteras and in the Panama Canal made geography a vivid experience.

The project furnished a great deal of desirable material in the form of letters, maps, pictures, slides, navigation and weather charts, and accounts of rescues at sea and also of the burial ceremony at sea. The teacher found in the plan a valuable and continuing teaching aid which could be applied to a number of subjects in such a way that the children were eager for opportunities to learn.

Not only did the project stimulate pupils' interest in history, geography, and science; it did much to improve their English, letter-writing and penmanship. It imparted reality and depth to a number of classroom subjects, coordinating theoretical learning with practical living.

—LORETTA MATTOCKS *and* GWENDOLYN PETTIGREW, *teachers, Washington Junior High School, and* JEAN SUTHERLAND, *sixth-grade teacher, Clinton, Iowa.*

NEW NEA PUBLICATIONS

THE following new publications may be ordered from the NEA or its departments, as indicated, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Prices quoted, unless otherwise specified, are for single copies and subject to discount on quantity lots of the same item and issue: 2-9 copies, 10%; 10 or more, 20%. See coupon below.

Audio-Visual Instruction

Graphic Communication and the Crisis in Education by Neal E. Miller and others. Discusses problems facing schools in use of graphic communication and scientific principles for maximum learning from motion pictures. 1957. 128p. Paper, $1.25; cloth, $2. Dept. of Audio-Visual Instruction.

Counseling

Intellectual Functioning in High-School Girls and College Women by Jean MacFarlane. Reprint from *Journal of Natl. Assn. of Women Deans and Counselors,* Oct. 1957. Discusses motivations and needs of high-school girls and college women. 1957. 6p. 35¢. Natl. Assn. of Women Deans and Counselors.

The Uncertain Senior by Nevitt Sanford. Reprint from *Journal of NAWDC,* Oct. 1957. Report of a research project on differences between college freshmen and seniors with respect to personality trends, social adjustment, emotional stability, interests. 1957. 8p. 35¢. NAWDC.

Elementary Instruction

Toward Creative Evaluation by Muriel Crosby and others. *Elementary Instructional Service* leaflet. Deals with creative evaluation of a child's progress in learning. Dec. 1957. 8p. Single copy free. Addl. copies 10¢ each. Consultant on Elementary Education.

Health

Healthful School Living. Report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the NEA and the American Medical Assn., with the cooperation of contributors and consultants. 1957. 323p. $5. Order from NEA or AMA.

Home Economics

Communications for Better Home Economics Teaching by Louise Fernandez. What communication is and how it works; its importance in teaching homemaking; ways to make it more effective. 1957. 12p. 50¢. Dept. of Home Economics. Order from NEA.

Legislation

The Teaching Profession's Window on Washington. Describes work, staff, and members of the NEA Legislative Commission, including its federal legislative objectives. Rev. 1957. 6p. leaf-

(Continued on page 56)

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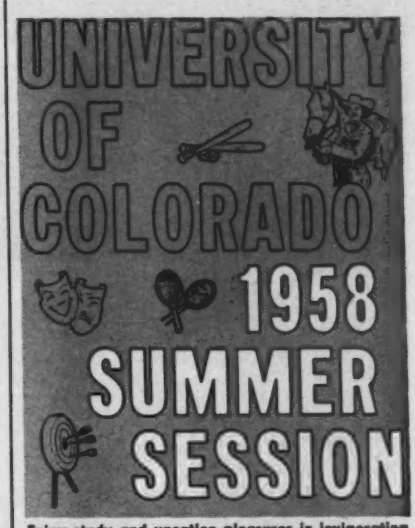

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But this fast-moving, colorful motion picture is far more than a mere portrayal of those exciting days. In an age of increasing concern over juvenile delinquency, it presents a truly inspiring picture of wholesome young people, working together for good citizenship and a better world.

This 16-mm., 14-minute motion picture, presented as a public service by the Pure-Pak Division of Ex-Cell-O Corporation, is ideally suited for showings to assemblies, classrooms, Scout and PTA groups. If your school would like a free showing of "For God and My Country," just send in the handy coupon.

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Parent Participation

Parents and the Schools, The National Elementary Principal. 36th yearbook. Aspects of parent participation in school programs. 1957. 310p. $3.50. Dept. of Elementary School Principals.

Recreation

Recreational Games and Sports, 1957-1962. 1957. 64p. 75¢. The Division for Girls and Women's Sports of the American Assn. for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. AAHPER.

Rural Teaching

Children's Time—A Precious Resource. Rural Service Teaching Brief (Series 2, No. 2). How teachers in small rural elementary schools can help children make good use of their time. Adapted from *Teaching in the Small Community.* 1957. 4p. 10¢. Dept. of Rural Education.

We Have the Best Climate. Rural Service Teaching Brief (Series 3, No. 1). Discusses kind of classroom atmosphere best for children and ways it may be achieved. Adapted from *Teaching in the Small Community.* 1957. 4p. 10¢. Dept. of Rural Education.

Safety Education

Civil Defense Education thru Elementary and Secondary Schools by Clara G. Stratemeyer. Produced by NEA's Commission on Safety Education for the Federal Civil Defense Administration. 1957. 36p. Single copies free. Order from Federal Civil Defense Administration, Battle Creek, Mich.

Action for Traffic Safety. Film that demonstrates how schools and the community can work together to develop safety in and around schools. 13½ min. 16mm. sd. color and b&w. Produced in cooperation with Natl. Congress of Parents and Teachers and the Natl. School Boards Assn. 1957. b&w, $41.50; color, $87.50. No discounts. Preview service for prospective purchasers. Natl. Commission on Safety Education.

School Administration

Shoring Up Legal and Policy Provisions for the Superintendent. Where does superintendent stand with regard to minimum-salary laws, tenure, retirement pay, social security, group insurance, leaves of absence, health protection? 1957. 24p. 50¢. American Assn. of School Administrators.

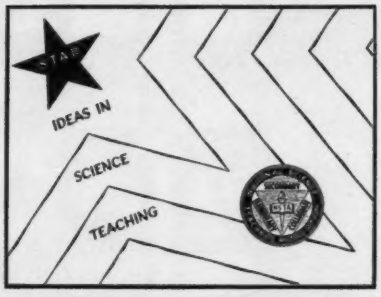
School Finance

How Much Should a Good School Cost? Portfolio containing reprints of major articles on all phases of the school-building picture. $2. Order from Natl. School Public Relations Assn. or AASA.

Stretching the School Building Dollar. Compares school-building costs with costs of other construction and materials. 1957. 4p. Single copy free. 10¢ per copy for quantity orders. No discount. AASA.

Where's the Money Coming From? by R. L. Johns. Reprint from November 1957 NEA JOURNAL. Analysis of local, state, and federal taxes as support for schools. 1957. 8p. Free. Legislation and Federal Relations.

Science



STAR Ideas in Science Teaching. Selection from winning entries in the 1956-57 Science Teacher Achievement Recognition program (STAR). 1957. 48p. $1. Natl. Science Teachers Assn.

Substitute Teachers

Don't Slight Subs by Jack T. Parker. From *It Starts in the Classroom.* How to make the substitute teacher an informed, enthusiastic member of the school team. Nov. 1957. 4p. Single copy 25¢. Annual subscription to *It Starts in the Classroom* $2. Natl. School Public Relations Assn.

Teachers' Salaries

If You're Interested in Salaries. Report on current salaries for elementary-school principals, and trends over the last 25 years. 1957. 4p. 15¢. No discounts. Dept. of Elementary School Principals.

Salaries Paid Teachers, Principals, and Certain Other School Employees, 1956-57, 352 Urban School Districts 30,000 to 100,000 in Population. Tabulations 11-A. Tabulates salaries by state and school districts. 1957. 66p. $5. Research Division. Order from NEA.

Salaries of School Superintendents and Their Immediate Assistants, 444 Urban School Districts over 30,000 in Population. *Educational Research Service Circular, No. 6, 1957.* Lists 1957-58 salaries paid to superintendents and other top administrative positions in the central office. Includes other pertinent information. 63p. $2. Educational Research Service. NEA.

Salary Schedules for Classroom Teachers, 1957-58: Urban School Districts 30,000 to 100,000 in Population. Gives minimum and maximum salaries scheduled for regular classroom teachers, medians and distributions of scheduled minimums and maximums. 1957. 27p. 25¢. Research Division. Order from NEA.

Salary Schedules for Classroom Teachers, 1957-58: Urban School Districts 100,000 and Over in Population. Gives minimum and maximum salaries scheduled for regular classroom teachers, medians by region, and distributions of scheduled minimums and maximums. 1957. 15p. 25¢. Research Div. Order from NEA.

School Salaries, 1956-57, 2011 Urban School Districts 2,500 to 30,000 in Population. Special Salary Tabulations III-A, IV-A, and V-A. Tabulates salaries of teachers and certain school officials by district in three groups: districts 10,000 to 30,000 in population; districts 5,000 to 10,000; and districts 2,500 to 5,000. Aug. 1957. 27p. $5. Research Div. Order from NEA.

What Salary for You? A study and proposal for salary standards for principals and assistant principals of secondary schools. Rev. 1957. 6p. Free in limited quantities. Natl. Assn. of Secondary-School Principals.

Teaching as a Profession

Qualities of Experience for Prospective Teachers (experimental edition) by John P. Wynne. First step in a research study which identifies and formulates standard qualities of experience desirable for prospective teachers. Designed for use by teacher-educators in such fields as curriculum development, student teaching, and philosophy of education. 1957. 140p. $1. American Assn. of Colleges for Teacher Education, 11 Elm St., Oneonta, N. Y.

Quality Teaching—Keystone of Progress. Poster, blue and red (two sizes, 8½" x 11" and 17" x 22") illustrates 1957-58 theme of the NEA Department of Classroom Teachers. 1957. Free. DCT.

The Postwar Struggle To Provide Competent Teachers. October 1957 *Research Bulletin.* Review of the annual national studies of teacher supply and demand in which the forces causing significant changes are examined. 32p. 80¢. Research Division. Order from NEA.

Teacher Supply and Demand in Colleges and Universities, 1955-56 and 1956-57. Study identifies all new full-time teachers employed during the past four years and examines their qualifications. Also reports occupations of the two most recent classes of doctor's degree graduates. 1957. 76p. Single copy free. Research Division.

TEACHERS

LAGO OIL & TRANSPORT CO., LTD., an affiliate of STANDARD OIL COMPANY (N. J.), at Aruba, Netherlands Antilles, anticipates openings for women teachers in September.

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AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Industrial Arts

VARIOUS aspects of industrial arts are treated in the following audio-visual materials, selected by Carolyn Guss of the Indiana University Audio-Visual Center, Bloomington, as representative of the many available. The producer-distributors, who will provide additional information on these and similar materials, are indicated by the numbers in parentheses.

Art and Technique of Photo-Engraving. Motion picture. 27 min. sd. color. A trip to a photo-engraving plant. Gr. 7-12, college, adult. (3)

Clay Products from Shale. Filmstrip. color. Steps in making tile from shale. Gr. 4-12. (2)

Designed for Living. Motion picture. 11 min. sd. b&w. Good design for the consumer. Gr. 9-12, college, adult. (5)

Five Thousand Years of Forging. Motion picture. 20 min. sd. History of forging. Gr. 7-12. (4)

From Yarn to Cloth. Motion picture. 15 min. sd. color. Shows weaving operations. Gr. 7-12, college, adult. (7)

Hack Saws and How To Use Them. Motion picture. 30 min. sd. color. Best method of hack-saw cutting, by hand and power. Gr. 7-12. (9)

Leather Tooling. Motion picture. 10 min. sd. color. Designing and making a tooled-leather belt. Gr. 4-12, college, adult. (8)

Use and Care of Hand Tools. Motion pictures. Series of 6. sd. Proper and improper use of hand tools. Gr. 7-12, college, adult. (6)

Weavers of the West. Motion picture. 13 min. sd. b&w or color. The making of Navaho rugs. Gr. 1-12, college, adult. (1)

Distributors and Producers

(1) Avalon Daggett Prod., 441 N. Orange Dr., Los Angeles 36. (2) Educational Film Service, 180 N. Union St., Battle Creek, Mich. (3) Horan Engraving Co., Inc., 44 W. 28th St., New York 1. (4) Mohawk Prod. Players Theater, New Hartford, N. Y. (5) National Film Board of Canada, 630 5th Ave., Suite 658, New York 20. (6) Proto Tools, 2209 Santa Fe Ave., Los Angeles 54. (7) Quebec Publicity Bureau, 48 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. (8) Selig Film Prod., 2759 Woodshire Dr., Hollywood 28, Calif. (9) Simmonds Saw and Steel Co., 470 Main St., Fitchburg, Mass. (10) Visual Education Consultants, Inc., 2066 Helena St., Madison 4, Wis.

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Careers

Working for the U.S.A.: Applying for a Civil Service Job, What the Government Expects of Federal Workers. 1957. 24p. 10¢. Supt. Doc.

Conservation

Materials To Help Teach Forest Conservation. Bibliography. 1957. Free to teachers. U.S. Forest Service, Washington 25, D. C.

What We Get from Trees. Poster (28"x 40"). New conservation teaching aid. 1957. Free to teachers. U.S. Forest Service, Washington 25, D. C.

Higher Education

College Handbook. Statements written by 184 member colleges of the College Entrance Examination Board. Each statement provides a description of the college and its terms of admission, study programs, degrees granted, freshman-year program, expenses, and financial aids. Tells where to write for further information. 1957. 456p. $1.50. College Entrance Examination Board, c/o Educational Testing Service, Box 592, Princeton, N. J., or Box 27896, Los Angeles 27.

Cost of Attending College. A publication based on the first comprehensive study of undergraduate college costs. 1957. 91p. 45¢. Supt. Doc.

Crisis in Higher Education by Charles P. Hogarth. Emphasizes need for fact-finding and long-range planning now as the best measures for meeting the higher-education needs of tomorrow. 1957. 60p. $1. Public Affairs Press, 419 New Jersey Ave., S.E., Washington 3, D.C.

Higher Education in a Decade of Decision. Analysis of basic issues and questions facing higher education—enrolment, curriculum, research and public services, instructional staff, policy formation, finance—on which decisions must be made by the American people. 1957. 152p. Paper $1.50. Educational Policies Commission. Order from NEA.

Scouting

Scouting in Public Schools. A manual on objectives, programs, and methods of cooperation by public schools and the Boy Scout organization. Rev. 1957. 67p. 60¢. Boy Scouts of America, New Brunswick, N. J.

Standards for Girl Scout Camping. Catalog No. 19-520. Complete set of revised standards for established, day, and troop camping. Covers standards on camp program, camp personnel, camp site, and camp administration. 1957. 29p. 30¢. Girl Scouts of the U.S.A., 830 3rd Ave., New York 22.

Teaching Aids

Equipment and Supplies. A list of recommended materials for nursery, kindergarten, primary, and intermediate schools, and home use. Rev. 1957. 98p. $1.25. Assn. for Childhood Education Internatl., 1200 15th St., N. W., Washington 5, D. C.

(Continued on page 63)

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IT'S A DATE

Jan. 3-4: Regional conference, Natl. Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA. Hartford, Conn.

Jan. 10-11: Regional conference, NCTEPS, NEA. Washington, D.C.

Jan. 13-14: Regional conference, NCTEPS, NEA. New Orleans.

Jan. 17-18: Regional conference, NCTEPS, NEA. Chicago.

Jan. 20-21: Regional conference, NCTEPS, NEA. Denver.

Jan. 24-25: Regional conference, NCTEPS, NEA. Portland, Oreg.

Jan. 30-Feb. 1: South Central regional conference, Dept. of Classroom Teachers, NEA. Kansas City, Mo.

Feb. 15-19: 42nd annual convention, Natl. Assn. of Secondary-School Principals, NEA. Indianapolis.

Feb. 20-22: Annual convention, American Assn. of Colleges for Teacher Education, NEA. Chicago.

Feb. 20-22: Joint convention, United Business Education Assn. of the NEA and its four divisions: Research Foundation, Administrators, Business Teacher Education, and International. Chicago.

Feb. 21-23: Regional conference, Natl. Assn. of Educational Secretaries, NEA, and the California Assn. of Educational Secretaries. Santa Barbara, Calif.

Feb. 22-25: Regional convention, American Assn. of School Administrators, NEA. St. Louis.

Feb. 22: Regional meeting, Department of Home Economics, NEA, with AASA, NEA. St. Louis.

Feb. 25-28: Southern district convention, American Assn. for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, NEA. Louisville, Ky.

Mar. 2-5: 13th natl. conference, Assn. for Higher Education, NEA. Chicago.

Mar. 2-6: 13th annual conference, Assn. for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA. Seattle.

Mar. 8: Regional meeting, DHE, NEA, with AASA, NEA. San Francisco.

Mar. 8-11: Regional convention, AASA, NEA. San Francisco.

Mar. 14-15: Northwest regional conference, DCT, NEA. Spokane, Wash.

Mar. 19-25: Natl. convention, Music Educators Natl. Conference, NEA. Los Angeles.

Mar. 21-23: Southwest regional conference, DCT, NEA. Reno.

Mar. 23-26: Annual meeting, Dept. of Elementary School Principals, NEA. Philadelphia.

Mar. 26-29: 6th annual convention, Natl. Science Teachers Assn., NEA. Denver, Colo.

Mar. 26-30: Annual convention, Natl. Assn. of Women Deans and Counselors, NEA. St. Louis.

Mar. 28-29: North Central regional conference, DCT, NEA. Indianapolis.

Mar. 29: Regional meeting, DHE, NEA, with AASA, NEA. Cleveland.

Mar. 29-Apr. 1: Regional convention, AASA, NEA. Cleveland.

Mar. 30-Apr. 3: 60th natl. convention, AAHPER, NEA. Kansas City, Mo.

THE BOOKSHELF

INTERNATIONAL GEOPHYSICAL YEAR

THE International Geophysical Year, July 1, 1957-January 1, 1959, is one of the most significant scientific undertakings in the history of man. Thousands of scientists from many nations will be making simultaneous observations of the earth's interior, crust, and oceans; of the atmosphere; and of the sun. During the IGY, scientists will explore almost every major land and sea area. The following books are representative of recent publications suggested for reading to emphasize the IGY.

This month's list was selected by Norma Runkle and Esther Robertson, librarians, Lafayette (Ind.) city schools, and Bernice Fites, librarian, West Lafayette (Ind.) city schools. The list was obtained at the request of the JOURNAL thru the cooperation of the joint com-

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Explore with Books

Space Satellite: The Story of the Man-Made Moon, Lee Beeland and Robert Wells. Explains the technical and scientific problems involved in launching a man-made moon. 1957. Gr. 5-7. Prentice-Hall. $2.95.

Tropical Rain Forests, Delia Goetz. Presents the life of the tropical rain forests and the products which they supply. Well illustrated. 1957. Gr. 4-6. Morrow. $2.50.

Comets, Herbert S. Zim. A science book for young readers giving clear, concise information about comets. 1957. Gr. 1-3. Morrow. $2.50.

All About Great Rivers of the World, Anne Terry White. Another addition to the Allabout Books. 1957. Gr. 5-7. Random. $1.95.

This Way to the Stars, John Schealer. Authentic information on the history and science of astronomy presented in a very readable manner. 1957. Gr. 5-7. Dutton. $2.95.

All About the Arctic and Antarctic, Armstrong Sperry. Discusses the physical, natural, and scientific features of these regions. 1957. Gr. 5-7. Random. $1.95.

Exploring Under the Sea, Sam Hinton. Describes the sea and its inhabitants. Tells how man uses the ocean resources. 1957. Gr. 5-7. Garden City. $2.50.

Exploring the Weather, Roy Gallant. Answers these questions: What is weather? What factors influence it? How can we understand it? 1957. Gr. 5-7. Garden City. $2.50.

You and How the World Began, Mary Lou Clark. Explains with black and white illustrations, the beginning of the world. 1957. Gr. 5-7. Childrens Press. $2.

Exploring Earth and Space: The Story of the IGY, Margaret O. Hyde. Presents the aims and projects of the nations and scientists cooperating in the IGY. 1957. Gr. 5-7. Whittlesey. $2.75.

Exploring Mars, Roy Gallant. A well illustrated history of man's study of the planet Mars from the sixteenth century to the present time. 1956. Gr. 5-7. Garden City. $2.50.

Solar Energy, Franklyn M. Branley. Shows how solar energy has been harnessed to cook food, heat the home, increase plant growth. 1957. Gr. 5-7. Crowell. $2.75.

Sun, Earth, and Man, George P. and Eunice S. Bischof. A dramatic account of the development of the universe, man's relationship to his environment, and the importance of the Atomic Age. 1957. Gr. 7-9. Harcourt. $2.75.

Rocket Power and Space Flight, G. Harry Stine. White Sands proving ground provides the information for this book on rocketry. 1957. Gr. 7-9. Holt. $3.75.

Quest for a Continent, Walter Sullivan. A summary of events preceding the International Geophysical Year relative to the Antarctic region. 1957. Gr. 10-12. McGraw-Hill. $5.50.

White Land of Adventure: The Story of the Antarctic, Walter Sullivan. Material from *Quest for a Continent* edited and prepared for teen-agers. 1957. Gr. 7-10. Whittlesey. $2.95.

Undersea Explorer: The Story of Captain Cousteau, James Dugan. Gives an exciting picture of the work of divers in the "silent world." 1957. Gr. 7-9. Harper. $2.95.

Rockets Through Space, Lester Del Rey. Discusses the possibilities of space exploration. 1957. Gr. 7-9. Winston. $3.95.

The Wind and the Weather, Joe Holton. A lively presentation of hurricane hunters, solar heating, and research plans for the International Geophysical Year. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Crowell. $3.95.

The Last Secrets of the Earth, Bernard Busson and Gerard Leroy. Discussion of volcanoes, living fossils, and other phenomena along with evidence on flying saucers. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Putnam's. $3.50.

Vanguard, Martin Caidin. An easy-to-understand discussion of the man-made satellite. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Dutton. $3.95.

The Making of a Moon, Arthur C. Clarke. Explanation of the construction and launching of the satellite and discussion of the areas the satellite will influence. 1957. Gr. 7-12. Harper. $3.50.

We Live by the Sun, James Gordon Cook. Discussion of the theories of the nature of the sun and research on harnessing solar energy. 1957. Gr. 7-12. Dial Press. $3.

Rockets, Missiles, and Moons, Charles Coombs. A survey of the developments in the field of space travel based on extensive research. 1957. Gr. 7-12. Morrow. $3.75.

Operation Deepfreeze, George J. Dufek. Recent adventures of the Navy in gathering information about the Antarctic region. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Harcourt. $5.

Atoms at Your Service, Henry A. Dunlap and Hans Tuch. Exploration of the uses of atomic energy in various fields. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Harper. $3.50.

About Earthquakes, G. A. Eiby. Explanation of the causes of earthquakes and the science of recording them. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Harper. $3.

Fabulous Fireball, D. S. Halacy, Jr. The story of solar energy. 1957. Gr. 7-12. Macmillan. $3.

Atoms and the Universe, Gwyn Jones. A relatively simple introduction to the theories of classical and nuclear physicists and the application of these theories in understanding the universe. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Scribner's. $4.50.

Rockets, Missiles, and Space Travel, Willy Ley. A discussion of prospects of visiting the moon, possibility of space collisions, and other subjects. Contains data on atmosphere and rockets. Rev. ed. 1957. Gr. 7-12. Viking. $6.75.

Peacetime Uses of Atomic Energy, Martin Mann. An interesting survey of the development of atomic energy for peacetime uses. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Crowell. $4.50.

The Amateur Astronomer, Patrick Moore. An introduction to astronomy, including chapters on most of the heavenly bodies. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Norton. $4.50.

Guide to Mars, Patrick Moore. Information about Mars gathered thru investiga-

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tion. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Macmillan. $2.75.

Discovery of the Universe, Gérard de Vaucouleurs. Technical history of astronomy with recent findings. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Macmillan. $6.

Modern Airmanship, Neil D. Van Sickel. A source book on modern flying covering weather, aerodynamics, navigation, and many other subjects. 1957. Gr. 10-12. Van Nostrand. $9.75.

♦ *The following just-off-the-press titles are suggested by NEA's Department of Secondary-School Principals:*

The Space Encyclopaedia. Guided missiles, upper-atmosphere research, and astronomy. 1957. Gr. 11-12. Dutton. $6.95.

1001 Questions Answered About the Weather. Frank Forrester. Every important aspect of weather. 1957. Gr. 9-12. Dodd, Mead. $6.

The Stars. W. Kruse and W. Dieckvoss. General source book and guide. Gr. 9-12. University of Michigan Press. $5.

The books mentioned here may be purchased from their publishers, whose addresses can be obtained in school or public libraries.

Books other than textbooks can be more conveniently and economically purchased thru book jobbers. Schools and libraries which regularly buy from one book jobber or bookstore receive discounts based on the volume of their purchases. Lists of book jobbers can be obtained from state library agencies.

FROM THE FOUR CORNERS

Professional Leaders

A. JOHN HOLDEN, Vermont commissioner of education, has been elected president of the Council of Chief State School Officers for 1958. First vice-president is Dean M. Schweickhard, commissioner of education, Minnesota; second vice-president, George E. Watson, superintendent of public instruction, Wisconsin.

EFRAIN SANCHEZ HIDALGO, former professor of education at the University of Puerto Rico, is the new secretary of education of Puerto Rico, succeeding Acting Secretary Francisco Collazo.

AUSTIN J. MCCAFFREY, commissioner of education of New Hampshire, be-

CAN YOU PLACE THIS SCHOOL ON YOUR WORLD MAP?

This is the fourth of a series of photographs of schools around the world which is being presented by the Journal to help acquaint our readers with the global march of education. The answer to the above question is printed upside down.
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came assistant director of the American Textbook Publishers Institute as of January 1, 1958. He will become executive director on July 1, 1958.

Another Gift for NEA's New Home

DISTRICT L, Virginia Education Association, on October 11, gave Executive Secretary William G. Carr a check for $50 to help equip the new NEA building. The money will be used to complete the purchase of a silver-service tray. (See news item in December NEA JOURNAL, page 618.)

Your Attention Is Called to . . .

IF YOU are interested in taxes—and who isn't?—you can't afford to overlook *A Matter of Deduction*. This new eight-page leaflet prepared by the NEA Division of Legislation and Federal Relations gives full information about proposed equitable federal tax treatment for *all* teachers, as set forth in the King-Jenkins Bill, HR 4662. For free copies of the leaflet address Division of Legislation and Federal Relations, NEA.

THEODORE D. MARTIN, director of NEA's Membership Division from 1925 to 1950, and more recently author of *Building a Teaching Profession*, has authorized disposal of the remaining copies of his book (originally priced at $3.50) at five copies for $10. Orders should be sent to T. M. Day, Whitlock Press, Inc., 18 Montgomery Street, Middletown, New York.

FOURTH-, fifth-, and sixth-grade teachers will find helpful new ideas and teaching tips in NEA's new and experimental publication, *Elementary Instructional Service*. First issue, called *The Elementary School Scientist*, includes in words and pictures more than a dozen suitable classroom experiments which any teacher could use to dramatize basic scientific laws with no more than usual classroom or kitchen equipment. Upcoming issue, *Toward Creative Evaluation*, which concerns pupil progress, may be obtained free by writing to Elementary Instructional Service, NEA headquarters.

With All Deliberate Speed: Segregation—Desegregation in Southern Schools, by Don Shoemaker and others, (New York: Harper Brothers, 1957. 239p. $3.50) is an effort by staff members and associates of the Southern Education Reporting Service to give an accurate account of desegregation as it has proceeded in the South in the period since the U.S. Supreme Court's decision of 1954.

TV-RADIO SPOTLIGHT

CHET HUNTLEY and David Brinkley continue to rate orchids from teachers for their coverage of education generally and NEA in particular on their nightly *NBC News* (6:45 PM EST) and on the Sunday NBC show *Outlook* (6:30 PM EST).

If you haven't yet thanked this top-notch reportorial team, make a New Year's resolution to do so soon. Here are just a couple of reasons why you should:

Three times in as many weeks in November, the two newsmen gave national mention to two major NEA reports and a statement issued by NEA Executive Secretary William G. Carr concerning President Eisenhower's Oklahoma City speech.

On September 2, 1957, the team gave a special 15-minute "Back to School" report over *NBC News* that Dr. Carr acclaimed as "vivid, able reporting."

That the team's interest in education and educators is not limited to their own daily jobs was shown by their "in person" participation in the NEA Centennial Convention in Philadelphia last summer. Mr. Huntley and Mr. Brinkley narrated a special film containing educational highlights televised over all networks during 1956-57.

Mr. Brinkley found the time to meet with members of the National Association of Secretaries of State Teachers Associations at their November conference in the Nation's Capital.

And to round out the picture, Mr. Huntley wrote the foreword for the special science issue of *The School Bell*, the monthly digest published by the NEA Press and Radio Relations Division and the National School Public Relations Association, an NEA department.

RECESS

"It Is No Childes Pley"

O Chaucer, bard of the Middle Ages,
There might be interest in your pages,
If I could read what you have written,
I'm sure my grades would be more fitten.
For I have found, romantic bard,
The way you write makes reading hard.
Dear Mr. Chaucer, your great need
Was so to spell that I might read!

—MAY NAPIER BURKHART, *Buhl, Idaho.*

To the Point

An elementary-school teacher in Darien gave her small charges a lecture on the merits of brevity one day last week, and then asked them to write a sentence or two describing something exciting. One of them promptly submitted the following: "Help! Help!"

—© *1956 The New Yorker Magazine, Inc.*

Military Support

I was a teacher for officers' children in an Army post school. When one of my pupils misbehaved one day, I punished him. The next morning, he brought me a note from his father. Written in a firm, militant hand was: "Effective immediately our son is restricted to quarters. Please advise this headquarters when playtime may again be granted."

—NORMA TRUST SHERMAN, *Fort Huachuca, Ariz.*

That's One Solution

I was trying to teach arithmetic reasoning when I asked, "If you know the price of seven hats, how would you find the cost of one?"

"Ask the clerk," replied one 10-year-old.

—ETHEL FISCHER, *Fredericksburg, Texas.*

◆ *Send us amusing classroom incidents that might suggest cartoon captions.*

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STANDARD—60 days, 13 countries; dep. June 7, 14, 28; round-trip steamship passage $1,026
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(Continued from page 58)

A Handbook for Instructional Leaders on the Use of Encyclopedias in Schools. Resource for teacher-education institutions, library schools, and for school administrators. 1956. 31p. Single copy free. College of Education, University of Washington, Seattle 5.

Phonograph Records for Classroom and Library. Catalog of records (kindergarten thru grade 9) arranged according to subject areas and grades. Included are sections on music appreciation, rhythms, square dance, social studies, and language arts. 1958. 36p. Single copies free to teachers. Educational Record Sales, 153 Chambers St., New York 7.

Social Studies Teaching Aids for a Stronger America: World of Flight Series, (Prepared for the Illinois Curriculum Program). An aviation-education resource unit for secondary schools. Reprinted 1957 by the Natl. Aviation Education Council. 106p. $1. Order from Natl. Aviation Education Council, 1025 Conn. Ave., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Tax Teaching Program

Tax Teaching Program. Two types of tax-teaching kits are available, one for general instruction in the subject, and one (includes *Farmers' Tax Guide*) particularly adapted to young people interested in farm tax problems. All kits contain material to serve as guidelines for teachers. 1957. Free. Public Information Division, Internal Revenue Service, U.S. Treasury, Washington 25, D.C.

EDITOR'S NOTEBOOK

A FIVE-YEAR-OLD and a six-year-old were spending Saturday and Sunday with me. Of all their games that week end, their "playing school" interested me most. Every so often I would hear Jean, the older, as teacher, drilling patiently, "Now say car, Doug."

"Tar."

"Not tar. Car. Try again."

In a little while, they would give up on the speech lesson and turn to reading. Here Doug assumed the teaching role.

"Go a-way, Perk-y," Jean read. "I can-not play. . . ." She hesitated. "What's this next word, Doug?"

He told her and she continued. The next time she hit a snag, her younger cousin again rescued her.

DOUG had taught himself to read—how and when, his parents and his kindergarten teacher did not know. In fact, no one realized at first that he really could read. His mother knew that every evening he studied the newspaper carefully, but she thought his reading was make-believe.

Then one evening he commented to her that he kept running across a word in the paper that he didn't understand. "What does s-l-u-g-g-e-d spell?" he asked.

YOU should have heard that five-year-old read aloud—about murders, international "pwoblems," "tondressional investidations." His cousin Jean thought he read as well as a teacher.

Jean's reading progress, that of a better-than-average first-grader, seemed interminably slow to Doug. At the visit's end he confided to me, "Jean's not weading well. We need to help her."

Jean, meanwhile, had come to me expressing concern over Doug's speech. "I can't teach him how to say read and car. The kids'll laugh at him if we don't help him."

THAT was 10 years ago. Today Jean is a voracious reader, which does not surprise me. I knew all the time that she would learn to read well. Unlike Dr. Flesch, I run across Johnnies and Dougs and Jeans who *can* read.

About Doug's prospects for conquering his speech defect, I was less sanguine. People of my generation who in the first grade said "tar" were often still saying that when they graduated from high school. We secretly thought they must be not quite bright if they couldn't pronounce a simple word such as "car".

THE public schools of Washington, D. C., thru an effective speech-correction program, enabled Doug to master hard *g* and hard *k* and his other recalcitrant consonants in less than two years. Since then, his enunciation has been as precise as Jean's reading has been omnivorous.

But whereas Jean would have been taught to read in any school system in the United States, could Doug have counted on expert speech correction in just any school anywhere?

ONE day last summer, when Kenneth Hance, executive vice-president of the Speech Association of America (an NEA department), was in the JOURNAL office, we were discussing the plight of children with speech problems.

"In school systems without speech specialists," we asked Dr. Hance, "can classroom teachers do much to correct the speech deficiencies of their children?"

"Not as much as the specialist can accomplish, of course," he told us. "But many teachers can gain skill with just a little guidance. Some are taking summer-school courses in speech education and learning how to help children with the simpler difficulties. Others get helpful suggestions from magazine articles. . . ."

And then and there we made plans for asking Dr. Elise Hahn, who works with teachers and children in a speech clinic, to write the article which starts on page 41 of this JOURNAL.

Please read it, if there's a single Doug—with "pwoblems" of poor speech—in your room.

QUOTE AND REQUOTE

KINDLING of interest is the great function of the teacher. People sometimes say, "I should like to teach if only pupils cared to learn." But then, there would be little need of teaching.
—GEORGE HERBERT PALMER

A high brow is a person educated beyond his own intelligence.—Ladies Home Journal

CHARACTER is like a tree and reputation like its shadow. The shadow is what we think of it; the tree is the real thing.—ABRAHAM LINCOLN

DO YOU remember how *old* sixth-graders seemed when you were in the first grade? And how *ancient* teachers were, whether 21 or 65?

That American children are not the only ones to whom age is a relative term was impressed upon me when I read this in the *Times of India*:

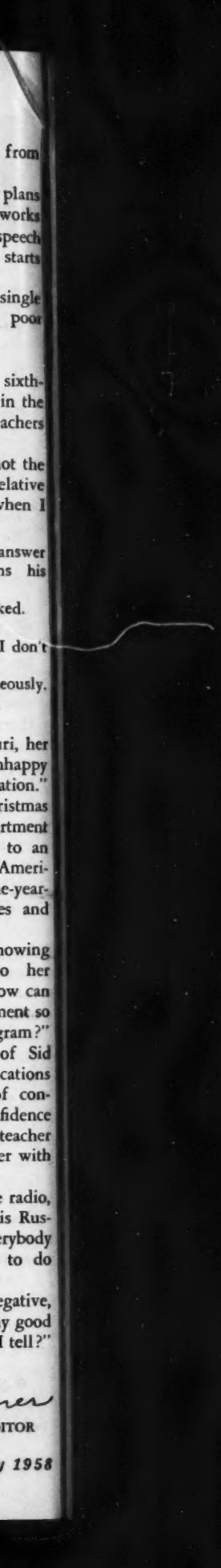
> The small boy was trying to answer politely the numerous questions his mother's guest was asking.
>
> "And how old are you?" she asked.
>
> "Almost six. How old are you?"
>
> "Oh," she said, embarrassed, "I don't remember the year I was born."
>
> "Never mind," he replied courteously. "Tell me the century."

A FOURTH-GRADER in Missouri, her teacher writes us, is "very unhappy about the American satellite situation." The girl brought to school a Christmas toy catalog sent out by a department store and pointed despairingly to an advertisement. "When will the American people," demanded this nine-year-old, "quit making toy satellites and start making real ones?"

She handed her bank book, showing deposits totaling $176.33, to her teacher, with this question: "How can I send my money to the government so it can speed up our missiles program?"

Arthur, seven-year-old son of Sid Dorros (head of the NEA Publications Division) has another kind of contribution to make. His self-confidence has been tremendous since his teacher told him he was "brimming over with good ideas."

After listening intently to the radio, he commented to his dad, "This Russian sputnik seems to have everybody worried. Do they know what to do about it yet?"

When Sid replied in the negative, Arthur asked, "Well, if I get any good ideas about what to do, who do I tell?"

Mildred S. Fenner
EDITOR